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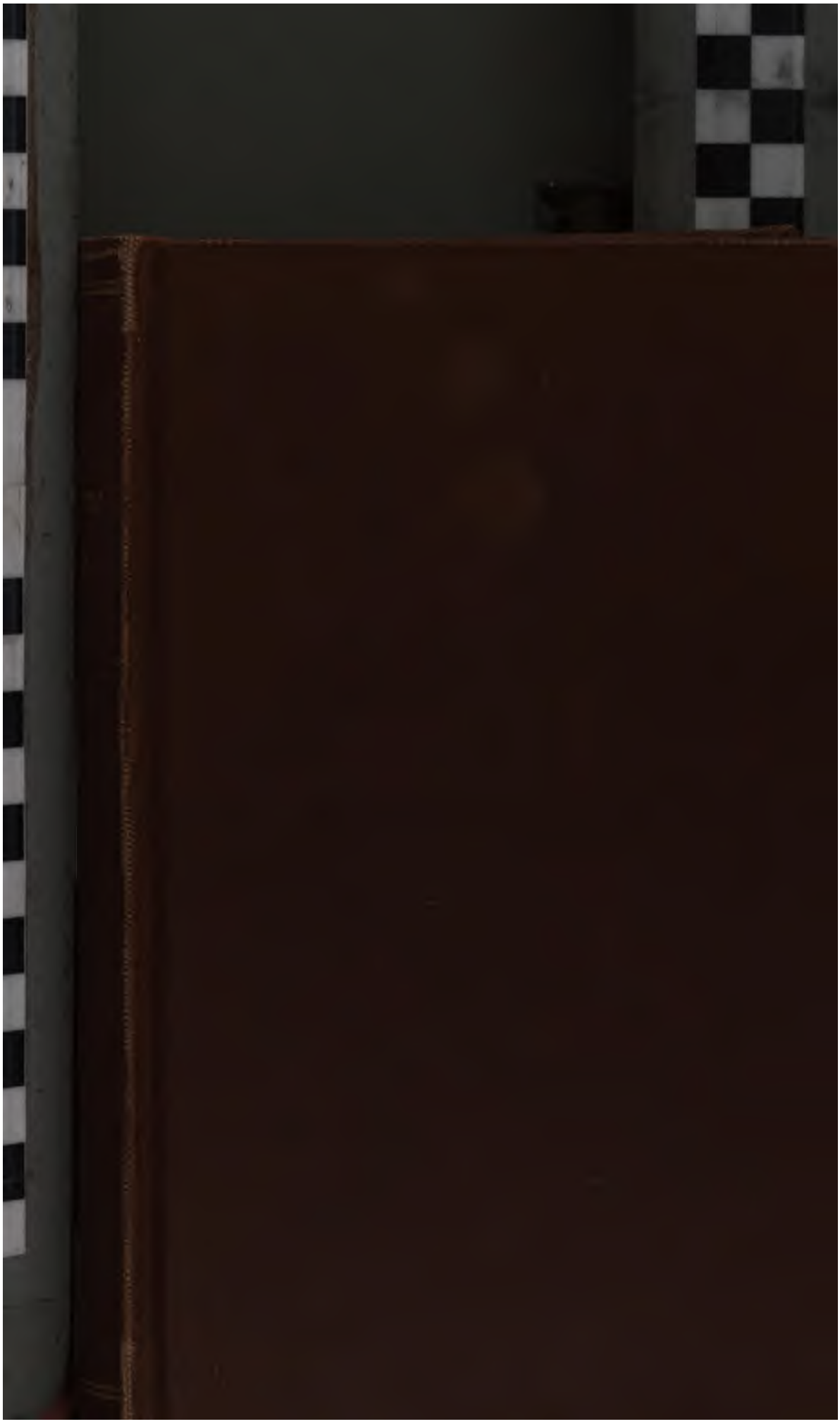

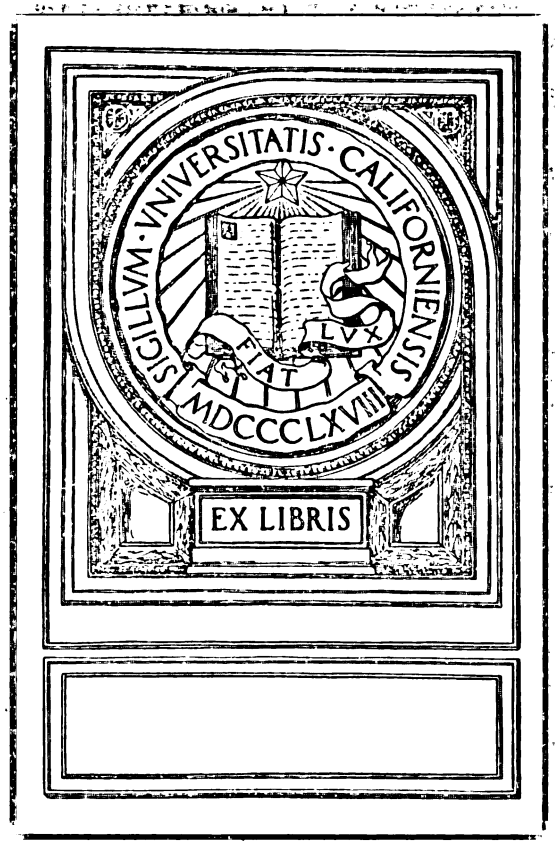
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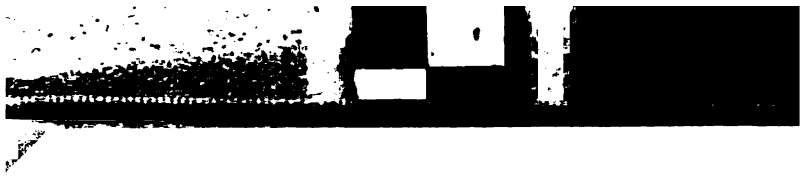

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HUNT'S

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.

JULY, 1844.

Art. I.—SHIPS AND SHIP-BUILDING OF THE ANCIENTS.

If we allow the correctness of that historical theory, which supposes, that the true principles of science were best understood in the earliest ages of the world; that, before the deluge, the laws of nature, and the most recondite properties of matter, were comprehended in a far clearer light than they have been since; and that all our science is but an attempt at the re-discovery of certain facts and principles, a knowledge of which has been lost, during intervening degenerate ages, nothing can be more absurd than the inquiries and disputes, concerning the invention and origin of navigation, which have occupied so much of the time of our older antiquaries. This theory, to which we allude, has many and able advocates. Setting it aside, however, and supposing that the antediluvians lived in the infancy of science, as well as of society, there is still no ground for maintaining, as some have, that the art of navigation was entirely unknown to the inhabitants of the world before the flood. From the very nature of things they must have made some progress in it. There were then, as now, rivers to cross, transmarine countries to visit; and the relations between water, and substances capable of floating, must have been as apparent as in the present day. An inference may also be drawn in favor of this view from the fact, that, in the account of the construction of the greatest vessel ever built—the ark—no circumstance is mentioned which would indicate it to have been the first of its kind. It was novel in its size, perhaps in its model, and certainly in its object, but no new principle seems to have been developed; and it was probably looked upon by the wondering and curious antediluvians as something extraordinary in marine architecture, but not as the first experiment in a new art. A tradition has even been preserved, that the antediluvians had boats previous to the deluge, but that they were insufficient to weather the waves and gales that then *swept the* earth, and were lost, with their unlucky *owners, in that mighty commotion* of the elements. To this ef-

fect, Plato* has been cited; and Ovid,† in his account of the flood. The question, however, is of so little interest or importance, that it would be an idle waste of words to consider it at any length.

The first vessel of which we have any authentic account—the first, not only in point of time, but in size, and the purpose for which it was intended, is the ark. The more we consider the dimensions, proportions and arrangement, of this wonderful vessel, as given in the simple, but comprehensive directions for its construction, recorded by Moses, the more are we struck with admiration of it, as a work of art, and as a very perfect adaptation of a means to an end. It has been objected, that, large as it was, it could not have contained all the animals that were directed to be gathered into it. The futility of this objection has been fully exposed, by numerous distinguished commentators upon Holy Writ. Taking the cubit at eighteen inches, the ark must have been four hundred and fifty feet in length, or more than twice the length of our heaviest line-of-battle ships; seventy-five feet in breadth, or from twenty-five to thirty feet wider than any two-decker; and forty-five feet in depth. Her tonnage, as estimated by Dr. Hales, amounted to 42,413 tons, equal to about eighteen ships of the line. That she was "broad at both ends, like a chest, and perfectly flat on the bottom," is, of course, a mere conjecture of our biblical commentators, but one, which, as she was not intended for sailing, may not be far from the truth. In such case, it is evident, that her capacity for stowage would be much increased in proportion to her tonnage, and that the number of tons would not indicate the real burden that she could carry. Two hundred and fifty pairs of quadrupeds, it has been estimated, were all that was necessary to perpetuate every known species; these, with the other animals, and their food for a twelvemonth, could not have overtasked the powers of such a ship. Internally, she was divided into three stories or decks; her timbers and planking were of gopher wood, thought to be cypress; and she was pitched within and without with a kind of bitumen, which now, as then, abounds in the country where she is supposed to have been built. It will be observed, that the ratio of the length to the breadth, is greater than generally obtains in modern times, except in some of our American vessels. The depth of hold, however, is considerably less. Long, but low, with a flat floor, no top-hamper, and requiring no ballast, the ark must have floated, during that awful tempest of divine wrath, a seaboat, that, for safety and comfort, could not, most probably, have been improved, in any particular, by the boasted skill of the present day.

Notwithstanding, however, that the recollection, at least, of this splendid specimen of naval architecture, must have been preserved for some time, by the descendants of Noah, the people of the earth, soon after the deluge, appear to have lost nearly all knowledge of the art, and a host of names are mentioned by ancient writers to whom is attributed the honor of its invention or re-discovery: Neptune, Minerva, Danaus, Atlas, Hercules, Jason, Erythræus and others, the mythic representatives of real persons, who each, at different times, and in different countries, contributed to the improvement of the rude modes and materials of navigation in use among their countrymen. It has been, of course, impossible to ascertain, from conflicting testimony and imperfect accounts, the merit or

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* *Liber III., de legit.* † Metam., Lib. I., fol. 7.

the exact state of the art at the times in which they lived. Certain it is, however, that, for many centuries, its principles were but little understood and its practice but little attended to, and that the progress of no art has been characterized by slower and more numerous steps.

Usous, a Phœnician, the brother of Hypsauranius, is represented to have been the first who ventured to sea in a canoe hollowed from the trunk of a tree by fire. Before his day, however, a much more rude and inartificial kind of vessel had been for some time in use. It consisted merely of a float, or raft of logs, lashed together by ropes, of skin or bark, and moved by both sail and oar. In its most simple form, a single log only was used, on which the adventurous voyager sat astride, and propelled himself by his paddle. These vessels were denominated *rates*, and corresponded precisely to the *catamarans** that are now used in the East Indies, on the coast of South America and in other parts of the world. We are told by Strabo† and Pliny,‡ that these *rates* were the first kind of vessels invented by the ancients. Father Montfaucon§ quotes Isidore to the same effect, and the statement is so probable, that we can readily give it credit. On these rude, but, when properly constructed, safe vessels, there is reason for believing that the ancients, particularly the Phœnicians, made voyages of considerable length.

The invention of Usous, who is thought by some learned men‖ to have been identical with Esau, the brother of Jacob, is an improvement, so obvious, that the only wonder is, that it should have been left for him to make. The idea of hollowing the trunks of trees must, at any rate, have been at once adopted, as we have abundance of evidence that such vessels were in common use at a very early date. These first log boats, corresponding precisely to our well known "dug-outs," were termed *monoxyla* by the Greeks, and soon came to be of all sizes, from the small canoe, carrying but a single person, up to the large piratical craft, containing thirty men. These last are mentioned by Pliny, and his account is quoted by Montfaucon, with expressions of surprise. The learned father, was probably unacquainted with the still larger war canoes of the aborigines of this country, and of the islands of the Pacific. The cotton-wood tree of the West Indies, will sometimes make a canoe that will carry a hundred men. The term *alvei*, was also sometimes used for the same kind of boats by the Romans. It was an *alveus*, according to Ovid, in which Romulus and Remus were exposed. They were also known by the name of *traburiæ*, as being constructed of one piece of timber or beam, and were in general use throughout all the countries of the Mediterranean, and in Portugal and Spain.

A variety of small craft were soon invented, adapted to the wants and means of different nations. To the *rates*, were added bulwarks of osier twigs, of which kind was the vessel of Ulysses.¶ The *monoxyla* were

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* The catamaran, consists simply of a few logs lashed together, and so arranged, that the middle ones project further ahead than those at the outside. In the centre one, is stepped the mast, to which is attached a shoulder-of-mutton sail. With a slight frame-work for a seat, and a basket, securely lashed, to hold his prey, the South American fisherman ventures far out of sight of land, and safely braves the roughest waves. These kind of craft hold their wind well and sail very fast.

† Lib. XVI. ‡ Lib. VII., chap 56.

§ Antiquitatæ Expliquee, Lib. VII. Rates primum et antiquessimum genus navigii e rudibus lignis asseribusque *consertum.*

‖ *Scheffer.* ¶ Odyssey, Lib. V.

doubled, upon the plan of the double canoes, used by the aborigines of some parts of the continent. The East Indians, constructed boats of canes, called *canna*, from which, it has been suggested, that the word canoe has been derived. The hollow cane* was split in two, of a sufficient length; a bow and stern fitted to the bamboo trough, thus made, of cloth, covered with wax and gum, and sometimes, probably, as is now practiced, by the application of pieces of the same cane, the section of which is made obliquely to the axis, and, when fitted and secured, presents a bow and stern rising at an angle of about forty-five degrees. These boats were frequently constructed of several canes, and in such a manner, that they could readily be taken to pieces and put together again, as Scheffer gathers from the assertions of Diodorus, and the agreement with them of the words of Quintius Curtius, who says: "He (Alexander) gave orders to advance to the Indus, and to construct vessels to carry his army over to the other side. Those who were intrusted with the execution of this order, knowing that several rivers would be encountered, built their boats in such a way that they could be transported by being taken to pieces, and afterwards put together again when occasion required."

Another kind of boats, was the *sabœan*, made of hides. Cæsar found them among the ancient Britons, where they were constructed with a light keel of wood and a framework of reeds, over which the hides were stretched. They were also used in other countries, and corresponded nearly to the skin skiffs of the present Kamschatkians, and other inhabitants of the frigid zone, with the exception, that the latter have frequently ribs of whalebone, and are furnished with a kind of diaphragm, or skin midriff, which, when drawn closely about the person of the boatman, decks in his skiff from the waves. This kind of boat, made of willow and skin, are mentioned by Lucan:

> "The bending willow into barks they twine,
> Then line the work with skins of slaughtered kine;
> Such are the floats Venetian fishers know,
> Where, in dull marshes, stands the settling Po;
> Or such, to neighboring Gaul, allured by gain,
> The nobler Britons cross the swelling main;
> Like these, when fruitful Egypt lies afloat,
> The Memphian artist builds his reedy boat."
>
> ROW'S LUCAN.

A peculiar kind of hide boat, were the *plicatiles*, so called, because they could be folded up. They were used by the Ethiopians, or inhabitants of Nubia and Abyssinia, who, when they visited Egypt, came in their *plicatiles* as far as the cataracts of the Nile, when they folded them up, carried them round upon their shoulders and again launched them upon the surface of the stream. These boats are sometimes made of leather, or india-rubber cloth, for particular purposes in the present day. A boat,

* "Diodorus takes notice of these boats, but does not altogether agree with other authors. He says, in India there is a great quantity of canes, so thick, that a man can hardly embrace one of them with both arms. Of these, they make boats which are never attacked by the worms, and last a long time. But when this author says that a man can scarce clasp one with both arms, he seems far from intimating that one was large enough to make two boats, but rather, that several were employed to make one boat."—MONTFAUCON. The learned antiquary, whose words are here quoted, probably litttle knew how small a craft could be used. Pliny says, these boats were able to carry three men. Now a canoe, made from a cane of a sufficient length, and six feet in circumference, would be abundantly able to do that.

somewhat after this fashion, is described by Herodotus.* He says, that, "the most curious thing that he saw in Babylonia, next to the great city itself, were the boats which came down the Euphrates bearing the produce of Armenia. They were constructed with willows, and on the outside covered with skin. Their form was round, in the shape of a shield, and without any distinction of bow or stern. They were rowed by two men, one pushing, the other pulling. Probably, they were indebted more to the current, than to their own exertions, and needed the oars only to steer clear of the rocks and shoals. Some of these boats were of a very large size, and capable of carrying a very valuable freight, of which, the principal article was generally palm-wine in casks. Into each boat was placed an ass, and into the largest ones, two or three; and upon arriving at Babylon everything was sold, even to the ribs of the boat, excepting the outside covering of hide, which was folded up, placed upon the asses and carried back, by land, to Armenia. There, a new frame was made for it, when it again descended the Euphrates."

The Egyptians used boats made of the papyrus. The broad leaves of this plant were sewn together, attached to a light keel, and gathered together at the two ends and tied. They were then coated with pitch. Montfaucon says, that this material continued to be used down to the ninth or tenth century, and that it was exported to different parts of the world: "Hence, it was, that the tyrant Firmus, boasted that he had enough of it to subsist his whole army; which passage, some have interpreted, as if the papyrus were something edible, whereas, it means, as Casaubon says, no more than that he had enough, when sold, to furnish him with money for the subsistence of his army." It may be doubted, from this, whether Montfaucon intends to intimate that the papyrus was used so late in the construction of boats, and still more, that it was exported to other countries for that purpose. At any rate, its consumption in that way must have been small, in comparison with its more important use in the manufacture of paper. Plutarch relates, that the crocodiles of the Nile made the navigation of that stream, in other kinds of small craft, exceedingly dangerous, but that they never troubled the boats made of papyrus; the reason of which was, according to the traditions of the Egyptians, that the goddess Isis had used them in some of her voyagings, and had thus rendered them sacred in the eyes of those scrupulous monsters.

Strabo, Diodorus and Pliny, all speak of boats made from the shells of tortoises. They are authors of undoubted veracity, and we must credit the fact, although we are not furnished with any very definite idea of the manner in which they were built. The sea-turtle is sometimes found of a sufficient size to make a small boat from his single shell, but the Egyptians could have known nothing of such monsters. They must have used the land-tortoise, and, most probably, had the art of welding together pieces of shell by means of heat.

Boats were also made of baked clay. These were attributed to the Agathyrsi, a people of Egypt, who are described as rowing their earthen vessels with painted oars. Pontanus, as quoted by Scheffer, mentions boats made of bark. They were used by the Pitzorienses, a people of India, and were, it is probable, similar in their construction to the birchen canoes of our aborigines.

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* *Clio, paragraph 94.*

Thus, many different kinds of boats, composed of a great variety of materials, were known to the earliest nations of antiquity. Most of them, probably, were invented long before the art of building a boat entirely of pieces of wood was understood. This, however, must have been discovered at a very early date, and have rapidly developed itself, in both rowing and sailing vessels of a large size. The framed wooden boats, must also have soon superseded all other kinds, except where the nature of other materials was best adapted to the exigencies of the navigation, or where the timber or skill was wanting to construct them, as in the plecatiles of the Ethiopians, the Sabæan boats of the Venetian fishermen, or the canna of the East Indies. They were also used in the construction of bridges, both permanent and temporary. Every one is familiar with the account of the celebrated bridge of Xerxes, across the Hellespont. The Romans had floating, or boat bridges, ovor the streams in some parts of their numerous provinces; and an important part of the material of their armies was a train of wagons, bearing boats, with which a temporary bridge could be rapidly formed. This invention, which seems for a good many centuries to have been lost or neglected, was justly deemed, upon its revival, as one of the most useful improvements in military art.

For boats, or undecked vessels, of a small size, the ancients had a variety of names. The *cymba*, a small boat invented by the Phœnicians; the *celox*, of the Rhodians; the *lembus* and the *myaparo*.

Those small boats which were rowed with oars, were termed *celoces;* while those in which sculls, pulled by one man, were used, were named *ampheres*. Of such, was Charon's boat, the ferryman of the Styx. Boats were also named frequently from the number of oars, as, for instance, the boats of two oars, were sometimes called *biremes;* of three, *triremes;* a fact, which must be recollected, to avoid the confounding of these small boats with those large ships, which afterwards, and more generally, derived the same names from the number of ranks or banks of oars with which they were furnished.

The origin of ships or large vessels, constructed by framing together pieces of timber and planks, is involved in almost as much uncertainty as that of the smaller craft of which we have been speaking. The reasonable supposition is, that several nations invented, at a very early date, independently of each other, ships, differing merely in some particulars as to model, size, &c., and that hence has arisen the discrepancy in the accounts of ancient writers. Some say, that Semiramis was the first to use galleys in her invasion of India. The circumstances of the invasion, supposing the accounts of it to be authentic in other particulars, show, however, that the vessels that she employed were nothing but boats, and differed very much from the vessels afterwards in use. By the Egyptians, the invention of the galley was attributed to Sesostris; by some, it is ascribed to Atlas; by others, to Jason; and, by others, with still greater probability, to the Phœnicians.

The first general division of the ships of the ancients, was into *naves onerariæ*, and *naves longæ;* the one for carrying merchandise, the other for the purposes of war. The *naves onerariæ*, being intended only as ships of burden, had a much greater breadth of beam, in proportion to their length, and a much rounder bottom, with, consequently, an increased capacity for stowage. Their crews were, of course, smaller, and they *depended generally* upon their sails. A proportion of such ships, formed

a very essential part of the ancient fleets, which they invariably accompanied upon any distant expedition as storeships, bearing provisions, instruments and munitions of war. They were frequently called round ships, from their shape. They are so called in Athenæus, from whom Montfaucon quotes a witticism of a certain joker named Stratonicus, who, when asked which ships, the long or round, he thought the safest, replied "those which come safe to land."

The *naves longæ* were, at first, a kind of galley, of a single bank or row of oars. Such was the Argo, the ship in which Jason and his companions performed their expedition in search of the golden fleece. It is said that this vessel took her name from the Phœnician word *Arco*, signifying long, which was generally applied by that maritime nation to their *naves longæ*, in contradistinction to the *Gaulus* or round vessel.* Jason's ship, was thus called Arco or Arco Navis, from being the first ship of the kind in use among the Greeks. She was at least sixty-five feet in length, and manned by fifty-four Argonautæ, all of whom are supposed to have been rowers. The poet, Serenus, laughs at Hercules, and calls him *semiremex*, half oarsman or "lubber," for his awkward manner of handling his oars; and we know that there were as many oars as men, or even more, if the allusion of Theocritus to thirty *scalmi* or tholepins, on a side, is correct. Generally, the Argo is styled, by ancient writers, a *penticontorus*, or vessel of fifty oars.

The *naves longæ*, with one rank of oars, were generally constructed without any deck, or, at most, with only small stages in the bow and stern, upon which the soldiers were stationed in battle. These vessels were called from this circumstance, *aphractæ* by the Greeks, and *apertæ* by the Romans, to distinguish them from the *cataphractæ* or closely decked ships. For a long time, the *aphractæ* were the only ship in use, as the *cataphractæ* were not invented until some time afterwards. These last, however, superseded the *apertæ* for the purposes of war, and the latter were devoted almost entirely to piracy, or as sentinels, couriers and tenders of the fleets. One class of them were called *actuariæ*, and a smaller size, *actuariolæ*. These varied in size, from twenty to forty oars, and were seldom or never furnished with *rostra* or beaks.

Some time later, a revolution seems to have taken place in the construction and adaptation of vessels for military purposes, somewhat similar to that which has occurred in modern times. From the time that the Atlantic became the scene of strife between contending powers, in the commencement of the fifteenth century, the object of the marine architects, was, to increase the size of their ships to the utmost possible extent, until it was proved, by repeated and severe experiments, that there was a limit, beyond which, it was useless and dangerous to venture. The huge three and four-deckers, with their high towering stern and forecastles, of the Spanish navy, were found unable to cope with the smaller, lighter and more manageable vessels of the English. In like manner, the *cataphractæ* of the ancients, which gradually grew to an enormous size, were, at length, found to have exceeded their proper limits. They were successfully encountered by a smaller class, as at the battle of Acteum; and the *cataphractæ* of five, six and seven ranks of oars, were, at length, almost entirely displaced by the *liburnæ*, of only one. The term *liburnæ*,

* *Bochart's Geog.*, Lib. II., chap. 2.

is differently applied by different writers. By some it is given to a small boat used by the Liburni, a people of Illyria, and rowed with only two oars. It is evident, that this craft could be of no very great service in a naval fight.* It is probable that the Liburnian galleys, that did Augustus such good service, were mostly half-decked, of considerable size, and furnished with rostra, with which, by reason of their lightness, and superior manageablity, they were more than a match for the heavy and unwieldy triremes and quadriremes of Antony and Cleopatra. When first adopted by the Romans, as vessels of war, their size seldom exceeded that of a single bank of oars;† but soon they began to make them of two, and even three ranks, and the term liburnæ was generally used for all men of war that did not exceed these rates. The huge vessels were, however, as we have said, generally laid aside. Even the triremes were but very seldom used; and, except for the purposes of show and ostentation, the liburnæ, of one and two banks, or *ordines*, were found to be the most desirable, and the only ones with which, in later days, the line-of-battle could be advantageously formed. They seem, by all accounts, to have been, not only smaller, but more compact, stronger and swifter, than the old vessels, and of nearly the same mould as the galleys of the Venetians, Genoese, French and other nations of the Mediterranean.

Before this revolution in the construction of ships of war, by which the liburnæ came into general use, the ancients rated and named their ships according to the number of ordines or banks of oars. There was the *majoris* and *minoris formæ*, or first and second class. In the second class or form, were included the *uniremes*, of one bank, the *biremes*, *triremes* and *quadriremes*, of two, three and four banks, or *ordines remorum*. In the first class, were the higher ordines, as the *quinquiremes*, &c.‡ Among the Greeks, the number of ordines were, at last, increased to an almost incredible extent. They had ships of ten, fifteen, twenty, and, in some instances, even thirty and forty banks of oars. Alexander built one of twelve, Ptolemy Soter, one of fifteen; and Plutarch, in his life of Demetrius, describes one built by that prince of thirty banks. Ptolemy Philadelphius extended the number to forty; and Ptolemy Philopater is said to have built a huge unwieldy craft of fifty rows of oars.

The biremes, it is asserted by Pliny, were first invented about three hundred years after the Trojan war by the Erythræ. The triremes were invented, according to Thucidides, by Amenocles, a ship-builder of Corinth, who built four of that class of vessels for the Samians. To Aristotle, of Carthage, and Nesichton, of Salamis, is attributed the honor of constructing the first quadriremes and quinquiremes. The Athenians, afterwards so powerful at sea, were, for a long time, far behind several other states in naval affairs. It was not, says Thucidides, until later times, when they had a war with the Æginetæ, and were also expecting an attack from the Persians, that, persuaded by Themistocles, they built those ships with which they so successfully opposed the barbarians.

In those vessels of more than one bank of oars, the rowers were divi-

* They were used, however, as scout-boats, and for the purpose of communicating between the vessels of the fleet. Augustus went through his fleet in one of these skiffs, before the battle of Acteum commenced, exhorting and encouraging his men.

† Vegetus, cited by Montfaucon.

‡ By the Greeks, these vessels were called *moneres*, or one bank; *dieres*, *trieres*, *penteres*, *hepteres*, &c., two, three, five, or seven banks, &c.

ded into classes. The lowest, or those that sat next to the water, and rowed with the shortest oars, were called *Thalamites*, the middle rank were termed *Zygites*, and those upon the upper deck *Thranites*. These last received higher pay, in consequence of the greater labor required in moving the longer and heavier oars of the highest bank; and hence has been deduced a strong argument in favor of the opinion, that, in the ancient vessels, only one man was stationed at an oar: for, if several men were stationed at each of the upper oars, in proportion to its weight, their labor could not have been considered harder than that of the Thalamites, who, we know, had each one his oar, and who would, therefore, have been deserving of equal pay. This is one of the arguments of Scheffer, who, in conjunction with Scaliger and some other learned antiquaries, maintained this opinion. The opposite side of the question, seems, however, to have been successfully espoused by Fabreti, who shows the absurdity of supposing that an oar of fifty feet in length could be managed by a single man. We must not forget, however, the expedient, that we know, in some instances, was resorted to, of running lead into the handles of the oars, whereby they might have been better and more easily balanced; but even allowing them such an aid, the objection of Fabreti has no little force. He shows, too, that a quotation from Silius Italicus, upon which Scheffer relies, has no application to the question; and he might, says Montfaucon, have gone still further, and have shown that the very words of Silius convey the idea that there were more men than oars. Fabreti, also, produces a very conclusive passage from the *Tactics* of Leo, to the effect, that, in a vessel of two banks, there ought to be fifty men at the lower row, and one hundred and fifty men at the upper, all armed for fighting. Montfaucon, after enumerating Scheffer's and Fabreti's arguments, takes a middle ground, which is, most probably, nearest the truth. He says: "As to my opinion, I believe, that, in the biremes and triremes, in the higher and lower ranks, there was but one man to an oar; but as to the quadriremes and quinquiremes, I do not dare to say whether there was more than one man to an oar or not. But this much, we must allow, it is hard to conceive how one man, in the higher ranks of the largest vessels, could move one of those big oars by himself." It is not at all improbable that a great diversity of practice, in this particular, obtained among the ancients, not only as respected different classes of ships, but also in vessels of the same rate, that, while in the largest ships the Thranitæ were generally superior, in numbers, to the Thalamitæ, in vessels of an inferior class they were sometimes superior and sometimes equal.

Another question,* equally obscure, and which has been debated at still greater length, is, as to the arrangement of the different banks of oars, especially in vessels of the highest class. Some maintain, that the oars were all in one tier or deck. These found their opinion upon the apparent impossibility of managing the higher oars, if the ordines are supposed

* It might be supposed that many obscure questions, in relation to ancient shipping, would be solved by the images of vessels which have been left to us. But the difficulty is, that most of the plates that the antiquarians have given us, are from the reliefs of coins and triumphal monuments—as the column of Trajan, at Rome, where all the material parts are sacrificed to the personal. Not the slightest attention is paid to proportion. The men on board of a ship, are sometimes, apparently, as large as the ship itself; and are represented as rowing *with oars half as long as* their arms.

to be one over the other, and also upon the assertion of an old commentator upon Aristophanes, who says that the Thranitæ, are those who row in the stern; the Zygitæ, in the middle; and the Thalamitæ, in the prow. To these are opposed Scaliger, Scheffer, Palmerius, Fabreti and others, who show that this commentator could have known nothing of the subject, inasmuch as he must have lived at a time when the old ships of several banks had been completely superseded by the liburnæ. Zosimus, the historian of the Greek emperors, expressly says, that, in his day, the beginning of the fifth century, no triremes had been seen for a long time; and the Scoliastis, supposed to have written at a still later date. Besides, his testimony is refuted by the assertion of a much earlier commentator upon the same poet, who clearly arranges the rowers in three ranks from below upward. But it needs no words to expose the ignorance of the latter writer, not only of the ancient vessels, but even of those of his own time. No vessel ever had oars placed directly in the bow and stern; and writers have accumulated abundance of testimony to the fact, that the ordines were arranged one above the other. Two passages, from the number that have been collected, will be sufficiently conclusive.

Silius Italicus speaks of a vessel that took fire upon the upper deck, where it raged for some time, driving the men away from their oars, before the Thalamitæ, or rowers of the lower rank, were informed of it.

On the other hand, Appian describes a case, in which one ship was run into by the rostra of another, and broken down to the keel; when, the water rushing in, drowned the Thalamitæ, while the Thranitæ saved themselves by swimming.* In the one instance, the upper rowers desert their oars while the lower ranks are yet ignorant of the fire; and, in the other, the lower rowers are drowned before they can get on deck, while those in the higher ranks escape. These, and numerous other clear and distinct passages, clearly establish, although they are very far from explaining the fact, that the ancients had ships in which the rowers were divided into numerous banks, one higher than the other.

The question, then, occurs, what was the relative position of the men composing the ordines? To this, no perfectly satisfactory answer has as yet been given. It has been maintained, that the rowers were placed directly over each other; but such an arrangement is evidently impossible. We cannot suppose, at the least, less than three feet and a half of space between each man, which would elevate the highest oars of a vessel, of sixteen banks, more than fifty-six feet above the surface of the water; and, in the huge craft of Ptolemy Philopater, more than one hundred and seventy feet. That arrangement, is also contrary to the images of triremes and biremes, which have been preserved, where the oars are clearly placed obliquely or checkerwise. This last, was, undoubtedly, the general arrangement; but it is nevertheless attended with many, and almost insuperable objections, when applied to some of the larger ships. It has been supposed that, in such cases, there were but few men in the lower bank, leaving a large interval or space between each rower; and that, between them, and almost on the same level, came the second bank, the oars increasing in number, the higher the bank. It is impossible to conceive any advantage in this arrangement, as it is well understood, that the lower the oar, the more effectually is its power applied; and the only reason we can suppose for it, is a foolish emulation as to the number of *banks. That such monstrous* craft were intended more for show than

use, we have the evidence of Plutarch, who says, that Ptolemy's great ship could not be moved without great difficulty and danger, and was nearly as stationary as a structure on land. Hiero's great ship, of twenty oars, was towed to Alexandria, where she was publicly moored as a spectacle; and a large ship of sixteen banks, built by Philip, of Macedon, is said, by Livy, to have been nearly useless and unmanageable from her bulk.

The learned Vossius, who wrote a dissertation upon the construction of the triremes and liburnæ, has given a very different, and certainly a very ingenious solution of this difficulty. He says, that there never were any ships of more than seven banks, or ordines remorum; and, in order to make this out, he goes into a long and minute calculation of the proportions and parts of Ptolemy's ship. He says, it is evident, that the men must have been placed in oblique parallelograms; that, in the lowest rank or ordo, there was but one man to an oar; but that, as they increased in height, that part of the oar within board, measuring from the *scalmus* or tholepin, increased in length, and to it was stationed a greater number of rowers. The second ordo, had two men; the third, four; the fourth, six; the fifth, eight; the sixth, ten. These men were disposed upon *juga* or benches, to which the term *ordines*, Vossius contends, has reference, and not to the number of tiers or banks. These juga ascended with a double obliquity, both lengthwise and in-board, towards what was called the *forum* of the ship. Having thus disposed of thirty-one ordines, upon six benches, Vossius places ten more men to each oar of another row, the *scalmi*, which were no higher than those of the sixth, but were placed further out upon the *traustra* or beams that ran across the vessel and projected from the sides. Forty-one ordines are thus accounted for, to every seven oars, counting from below upward. Now, we know, that, in each row, reckoning lengthwise, there were fifty oars, which, multiplied by seven, gives three hundred and fifty a side, or seven hundred in all; and, if to every seven oars, there were forty-one men, the whole number required four thousand one hundred, which corresponds to the number as stated by Athenæus.

After all, however, the question may be considered of but very little interest or importance, inasmuch as it relates only to those huge products of despotic fancy, called by the ancients, Cyclades, from the resemblance to islands, and which were evidently neither adapted or intended for service at sea. In the vessels in ordinary use, we have sufficient evidence to warrant the belief, that their oars were always arranged obliquely or checkerwise—the rowers of the second rank, sitting a little above, and between the rowers of the first; and that, in the uniremes and biremes, there was but one man to an oar; in the triremes, sometimes two; and, in the higher banks of the quadriremes, quinquiremes, &c., always two or more.

The materials used by the ancients in ship-building, were, in general, nearly similar to those employed in the present day. Of the woods, the *Ilex*, a species of oak; the *ornus*, or ash; the wood of Dodona, by some, supposed to be the beech, and by others, with more probability, a kind of oak; the pinus, the alnus and the cedar, were in most repute. Tree-nails, or pegs of wood, were used for fastening on the planks, mixed with a due proportion of iron, or, what was esteemed preferable, brazen bolts. The *express testimony of Vegitius*, in favor of brass over iron, has been

frequently cited; and we are informed that Hiero, of Syracuse, built a ship of the largest size, which was brass-fastened throughout. For caulking, *stuppa* or tow was commonly employed, but sometimes a kind of rush called *Spartum*;* the seams were then payed with wax, and sometimes with rosin and pitch. This wax was frequently applied in a heated state to the whole surface; and when ornamental painting was employed, the colors were mixed with wax, and after being burnt in, (a mode of painting, called by the Greeks *encaustic*,) were varnished and polished, and rendered capable of withstanding the effects of air and moisture for a long time. The sails were made sometimes of matting, like the sails of the modern Chinese junks. This kind of sail was, however, most probably confined to the Egyptian and Venetian vessels in the Red sea and Indian ocean. In the Mediterranean, the sails were made sometimes of linen, and sometimes of silk, and, in some instances of leather and hides.

We know from the words of Ezekiel, that luxury and prodigality in the construction and fitting up of ships had made great progress at a very early date. "Take up a lamentation for Tyrus," said the Lord to his prophet, "and say unto that merchant of the people for many isles, thy builders have perfected thy beauty. They have made all thy ship-boards (deck-planks) of fir-trees of Senir: they have taken cedars from Lebanon to make masts for thee. Of the oaks of Bashan have they made thine oars; the company of the Ashurites have made thy benches of ivory, brought out of the isle of Chittim. Fine linen with broidered work from Egypt was that which thou spreadest forth to be thy sail; blue and purple from the isles of Elishah was that which covered thee. The inhabitants of Zidon and Arvad were thy mariners: thy wise men, oh Tyrus, that were in thee, were thy pilots. The ancients of Gebal and the wise men thereof were in thee thy caulkers: all the ships of the sea with their mariners were in thee to occupy thy merchandise."

The fir-trees of Senir must have answered very well for the decks, but it may be questioned whether the oaks of Bashan were the most appropriate for oars. The oak, it is hardly probable, was the tree intended by the prophet. The benches of ivory, Newcome supposes to have been seats in the cabins of the royal galleys. Lowth, however, much more reasonably maintains, that they were the benches upon which were seated the rowers; and this interpretation gives a much better idea of Tyrian extravagance, and is fully warranted by what we know of other instances of similar prodigality. The celebrated visit of Cleopatra to Antony, is familiar to all. In a galley gilt all over, beneath purple sails, and a canopy of cloth of gold, the voluptuous queen, with her attendant beauties of both sexes, reclined, enjoying the fragrance of the most precious incense which threw its perfume far over the sea, and listening to the strains of the softest music re-echoing from the neighboring hills, and blending, in the sweetest harmony, with the splashing of her silver oars.

Her predecessor, however, Ptolemy Philopater, seems to have far excelled all other potentates, with the exception, perhaps, of Hiero, king of Syracuse, in the ostentation of ship-building. The dimensions of his great ship, as given by Athenæus, are truly astonishing.† In breadth

* This is the Spanish broom, which still grows so extensively in the province of Murcia. The plains around Carthagena, were formerly called *Campus Spartarius*, from this production.

† *Montfaucon.*

she was fifty-seven feet, or about the size of our largest ships of war; in length, she was four hundred and twenty feet, or full twice as long as the heaviest two-decker; and seventy-nine feet in height, from the water to the top of the *acrostolecon* or highest ornament of the stern. Four thousand men propelled this huge mass by means of oars, the longest of which was fifty-seven feet in length; and which, notwithstanding their size and weight, were, it is said, rendered manageable by lead run into the handles. These oars were beautifully ornamented with paintings, and the most elaborate carvings of vine and ivy leaves. Two prows, seven rostra or beaks, and colossal figures of animals, at the head and stern, aided in exciting the admiration of the spectators. Besides her rowers, she carried four hundred sailors and two thousand eight hundred and fifty soldiers. The ordinary way of launching vessels, which was to drag and push them by main strength into the water, would not answer in her case, and they had to construct a machine for the purpose, in which was employed as much timber as would build fifty large ships. By the help of this, she was forced into the stream, amid the flourish of trumpets and the acclamations of the people, and to the great delight, no doubt, of the royal parricide, matricide, fratricide and debauchee.

Not content with this specimen of useless extravagance, the same Ptolemy resolved to build another vessel of nearly equal size for the Nile. Of this ship, Montfaucon and other antiquaries, give us, from Athenæus, a particular, although not always a very clear account. She was called *Thalamegus*, from being provided with bed-rooms, and was, in length, one hundred and twenty-five paces; in breadth, forty-five feet; and, in height, including a kind of tent constructed upon deck, sixty feet. She had a double prow and double stern, and was surrounded on the inside by a gallery of two stories, the lower, supported by pillars like a peristyle, the upper enclosed, and furnished with windows on both sides. Communicating with this gallery, in the bow, was a kind of porch beautifully ornamented with ivory and precious woods. Connected with this porch, was a covered ante-chamber, with windows opening to the left and right, and a passage opening into the great hall. In this apartment was exhibited the heighth of luxury. The columns surrounding the room, were of cypress wood, with Corinthian capitals of ivory and gold. The architrave was all gold, and the frieze elaborately ornamented with numerous figures in ivory. The doors, twenty in number, were richly inlaid with precious woods and metals, and also adorned with sculptures in ivory, which were not, however, so much remarkable for their elegance as for their number. Upon the ceiling, composed of panels of cypress, were profusely displayed sculptures, covered with gold. Adjoining this hall was a bed-chamber, with seven beds; and beyond that, separated by a narrow passage, was an apartment, equally rich with the first, for the women. Here was a dining-room capable of holding nine couches, ornamented in the most costly style, and communicating with another bed-chamber for five beds. All these rooms, passages and galleries, were upon the lower deck. From this, a flight of stairs led up to the second gallery, where there were other and still more sumptuous apartments. The first was a dining-room, with five tables, adjoining which, was a magnificent arched temple of Venus, in which stood a marble statue of that goddess. Opposite this, was another saloon adorned with columns of Indian stone. Farther towards the bow, was a noble hall dedicated to Bacchus. Symbolical

sculptures and paintings loaded the entablature, which rested upon the gilded capitals of Corinthian columns. To the right, there was a cave filled with Mosaic work, and the images of the Ptolemy family sculptured in a kind of stone called *lychnites*. Above the principal room of this story, there was another dining saloon, covered by a kind of tent held together by cords, and near to which was a large open space for air and exercise. From this place, a winding flight of stairs went up to a covered gallery, and to a dining-room of nine tables. Round this, were placed fluted columns, the flutings being alternately white and black, with capitals, adorned with roses and the flowers of the lotus and palm. Numerous other rich and convenient apartments, served to accommodate the crowd with which she was peopled.

The same authority, gives account of a wonderful vessel built by Hiero, king of Syracuse, which, as we have had occasion several times to allude to it, we will here shortly describe. Ambitious of renown, Hiero resolved to build a ship which should far eclipse the fame of the machine of Diocledes, the funeral pile of Timæus, the lamp of Polycletus, or the chariot of Hieronymus. For this purpose, he gave orders to collect materials and men, and appointed Archias, of Corinth, as master-builder. Three hundred ship-carpenters, besides other artificers, were employed. From Mount Ætna was obtained timber, sufficient to have built sixty large triremes, and from Italy and Sicily, was collected a vast quantity of wood for decks, tree-nails, &c. The masts were rather more difficult to obtain, particularly the mainmast; but at last, however, a tree was found in the mountains of Bruttiorun, in the south of Italy, large enough for the purpose. The ship was sufficiently finished in six months for launching, which was effected by means of a machine invented by the celebrated Archimedes. She was completely copper-fastened throughout. Many of her bolts, weighing ten pounds and upwards, were inserted in holes bored by *trebræ* or augurs, and prevented from slipping or drawing by wrapping them in waxed cloth and fastening them with lead. Three grand galleries or saloons, ran fore and aft the ship, from which branched off numberless apartments. In the lower, was the hatchway that led to the hold; in the middle, branching off at right and left, were thirty rooms, in each of which were four beds; in the upper story, there was a gymnasium, and places for walking and exercise. There were also extensive gardens, watered by leaden tubes, and shaded by arbors of ivy and vine. The ceilings, windows and doors, of all the rooms, were ornamented with the most exquisite and elaborate art. One saloon was dedicated to Venus. It was furnished with three beds, and paved with agate and the most costly stones that could be found in Sicily. In fact, all the apartments were paved in Mosaic, and among the subjects represented in this manner, were a complete series of scenes from the Iliad of Homer. Next to the temple of Venus, came a room called the *scholastericon*, in which was an extensive and valuable library. The walls and windows of this room, were made of carved box-wood. The bathing-room contained three beds, three large kettles of brass, and a bathing-tub of one single tauromentian stone. Besides all these, and the innumerable rooms for the accommodation of the sailors and soldiers, there were on each side of the ship ten stables, with places for the provision of the horses and for the accommodation of the horsemen and grooms. In the bow, there was an immense *reservoir of water, and* near it a large fish-tank made of planks and sheets

of lead. On the outside of the ship, supported by timbers projecting from the side, were placed piles of wood, ovens, mills for grinding corn and other conveniences, and all round the bulwarks were placed, at equal distances, huge statues of Atlas, by which was supported the upper deck. Innumerable paintings adorned every part, aided by the richest sculpture and gilding. Eight lofty towers, with battlements, from which missiles could be thrown at an enemy, added to the imposing, but, according to our notions, not very ship-shape appearance of this floating city. Various machines, one of which, invented by Archimedes, could throw a stone weighing three hundred pounds a distance of two hundred and fifty paces, protected the bulwarks, while long timbers, suspended in chains of brass, heavy iron crows to grapple the enemy and machines in the tops, loaded with stones and balls of lead, completed her terrible defences. Twelve hundred soldiers manned the sides, besides an equal number stationed in-board, around the masts and in the tops, and the sailors and rowers who moved the oars of her twenty banks. From the great depth of hold, it was necessary to invent a new machine for drawing off the water. This was effected by Archimedes, by means of an apparatus which, most probably, was the *cochlion*, commonly called Archimedes screw, and generally attributed to that illustrious engineer.

When completed, Hiero found that there was no port in Sicily where she could lie in security, and he resolved to make a present of her to Ptolemy. She was accordingly towed to Alexandria, accompanied by a whole fleet of vessels laden with corn and fish, and moored in that port, from whence, it is supposed, that she was never afterwards removed. But, although useless to her royal constructor, or to the Egyptian king, she proved of no little service to an Athenian poet named Archimelus, who composed some verses in honor of the ship and her builder. Hiero sent him in return six thousand *sextarii* of grain.

A very important part of an ancient ship of war, was the *rostrum*, which, it is said, was invented by Aristo, a Corinthian, but which, it is most probable, he merely shortened and placed lower down. Acting upon his advice, the Syracusians were enabled to gain a signal advantage over the Athenians. Some ships were furnished with more than one rostrum. Ptolemy's big ship, we are informed, had seven. Generally, however, there was but one, and it consisted of a stout timber or timbers, projecting directly from the bow, upon a level with the surface of the water or a little below. It was always well fortified with iron or brass, and was esteemed one of the most essential and powerful means of offence. One of the chief objects in all naval battles, was to pierce, with these beaks, the sides of the enemy's vessel. One blow, fairly and fortunately given, frequently sank a vessel instantaneously, as in the instance we have mentioned, where the water rushed in with so much rapidity that many of the rowers were drowned; or, as in the celebrated battle of Salamis, when, as Herodotus relates, Queen Artemisia, who fought on the side of the Persians, finding herself pursued by a Grecian ship, resorted to a curious stratagem to escape. Suddenly tacking ship, she rushed upon one of the Persian galleys,* and sunk it with one blow. The Athenians supposed

* The ship she destroyed *was a Calyndian*, and had on board Damasithymus, a Calyndian *prince*.

from this, that her ship was either a Grecian vessel, or one that had deserted from the Persians.*

Another powerful means of offence, were the towers, of which, as we have seen in the case of Hiero's big ship, there were as many as eight. Generally, however, there were either two or four. As they took up a good deal of room, and interfered much with the ordinary working of the vessel, they were in general only temporary, and were so constructed as to be taken to pieces and put together again as occasion required. From these towers, were projected missiles of all kinds—stones, darts, balls of lead and burning arrows, covered with tow, and smeared with pitch, oil and other combustible substances.

As our space will not permit us to go very minutely into this branch of the subject, we will merely mention one other offensive weapon—the *asser*—which was considered particularly effective. It was, according to the Vegetius, a beam, armed with iron at both ends, and slung like a yard in the middle to the mast, and when whirled about, swept the enemy from their decks, and sometimes even stove in the ship. How such a machine could be conveniently used, and without about as much danger to friends as foes, it is hard to conceive; and we suspect, that, despite the opinions of the ancients, it was but a clumsy affair. A variety of inflammable compositions were made use of with considerable effect. They were projected from tubes to a considerable distance, but whether by their own expansion or by an extraneous force does not so clearly appear.

Of the terms applied to the spars, rigging, &c., it would be easy to collect a long list, especially from the *Antiquiti Romanorum, Rossini;* but in general their meaning is so uncertain that it would not be worth the space. *Funes*, was the common term for all the ropes; and of these, the *rudentes* appear to have been the lifts, the *pedes* the sheets, the *cerunchus* a brace, and the *protones* the shrouds, which ran up and were secured just below the *corbes* or tops. The *anchoralia* were cables, to which were fastened the anchors of stone or wood, with lead run into them, or baskets filled with pebbles, and later, of iron, with one and two flukes, and of a shape nearly resembling those in use at the present day. It is a little curious, that, what is justly considered one of the greatest improvements in ground-tackle, the introduction of chain cables, should be as old as the times of Cæsar, who takes notice of them among the Venetians.† But thus it is with many of our most important improvements in science. A full history of ancient art would probably show that what we call inventions, are frequently but rediscoveries of what was well known to the artists and mechanics of Greece and Rome. How much might we, perhaps, learn, as to the application of the mechanical powers, if we knew precisely the construction of the machines which raised to their lofty sites the massive stones of the pyramids, or of that wonderful combination of machinery, invented by Archimedes, by which, one man was able to project into her proper element the largest ship with safety and ease.

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* "Artemisia, thus, not only saved herself, but won great favor from Xerxes: for, as she was bearing down for the shock, the attention of Xerxes was attracted to her prowess. He inquired if that was her ship; and was assured, by those who knew her figure-head, that it was; at the same time, he and all around him supposed that the Calyndian vessel was a Grecian. The latter was sunk so quickly, that not one of her crew survived to contradict the belief. Upon this occasion, Xerxes is said to have observed—'The men conduct themselves like women, the women like men.'"—Herod., Lib. VIII., Urania, *cap. 88.*

† *Fosbroke, Encyclopedia of* Antiquities.

Art. II.—SKETCHES OF COMMERCIAL LEGISLATION.

NUMBER III.

FREE TRADE *vs.* PROTECTION—DEBATE IN THE UNITED STATES SENATE.*

Mr. Benton next obtained the floor, and the subject was laid on the table to be called up at his request when ready to proceed. Owing, however, to the accident on board the Princeton, from the effects of which Mr. Benton was confined some weeks, the question did not again come under discussion till Monday, the 25th of March, when, and on the two succeeding days, he addressed the Senate, occupying altogether its attention for about five hours. As Mr. Benton takes a middle ground, and consequently presents new views of the subject, a digest of his speech, somewhat in detail, is deemed necessary, and will probably be highly acceptable to moderate men who feel opposed to the extremes of the protective and free trade doctrines.

He sets out with a contrast of the two systems of duties—that of duties imposed wholly for revenue, and that of duties imposed for the mixed objects of protection and revenue. In this contrast, he divides the half century during which our government has existed, into two periods of twenty-five years each; the tariff laws of the first period, having revenue for the object, protection being the incident; and those of the second period, having protection for the object, revenue being the incident. A striking difference, he points out in those two systems; first, in the amount of duty imposed, and next, in the mode of assessing or computing it. Before the late war, the rate of duty, whether ad valorem or specific, was always moderate, never prohibitory, and uniformly laid on with a view to the production of revenue. Since the war, duties have often been exorbitant or prohibitory, and rendered still more exorbitant by the mode of computing them on the assumption of fictitious values.

During the first of these periods, harmony and happiness prevailed among the industrial classes; the career of labor, in all its branches, was progressively prosperous; the word *tariff*, was never heard of; the incidental protection, afforded by the absolute wants of the government, was quietly and silently encouraging the growth of manufactures as fast and as steadily as could be justified by the wants of the community; and the great mass of the people was in the happy condition of Moliere's country gentleman, who had talked prose all his life time without knowing it. To those good old times, Mr. Benton wished to return; to the object and structure of those good old laws, and to the enjoyment of their happy consequences. He disapproves of the horizontal principle of the compromise act, and is not, therefore, in favor of recreating that law; he avows himself in favor of discriminating between articles of luxury and necessity, making luxuries pay highest; he is for discriminating between articles made at home, and those not made at home, putting the highest duties on the foreign rivals of our own products; but he insists on some limitation, in effect, that no duty, whether ad valorem or specific, shall exceed 30 or $33\frac{1}{3}$ per cent. This discrimination and incidental protection he had always advocated. It was admitted by good free trade authorities, as was

* Debate continued *from the Merchants' Magazine* for May, 1844, Vol. X., No. 5, p. 421, *and June, Vol. X., No. 6, p. 536.*

proved by the South Carolina legislative report of 1828, by the Philadelphia free trade address of 1831, and by the Virginia democratic address of 1839. In a word, he was for returning to the system which had worked so well anterior to the late war, when the specific duties rarely exceeded a fourth, or at most a third of the value, and when the ad valorem duties ranged only from 5 to 15 per cent. The specific duty of 33¼ per cent, to which he is willing to go for protection, is, in effect, he argues, 50 per cent: for, the expenses of importation being 7½ per cent, and the importing merchant's profits and charges 12½ per cent, these sums, besides the 33¼ per cent duty, have to be added to the first cost abroad, before the imported article can come into our market in competition with the home-made article. Gentlemen who preceded him in debate, had pointed out the enormous and prohibitory duties imposed by the act of 1842. Here, then, the two systems stood contrasted, the old against the new; and on this issue, he and his friends are willing to go to trial before the country. Besides a good cause and good arguments, it was necessary to have the right issues, and they could not be made on the compromise act, which disregarded the necessary distinction between luxuries and necessities, and between articles competing and not competing with home industry; but the true issue was, between the old system of duties for revenue affording incidental protection, and duties for protection affording incidental revenue. "We are not," observes Mr. Benton, "to make war upon manufacturers. They were once as popular in the south as in the north, and may become so again. The abuses of the high protective system have destroyed their popularity in the south; eradicate the abuse, and they will again be popular in every part of the Union. Manufactures are among, not only the useful and ornamental, but the noblest arts of the country. Every statesman will cherish them, and honor the skill and industry which perfects them, if left free to follow his own inclination. Abuse only (the conduct of politicians and millionary capitalists) have made them enemies. Separate the real manufacturers from these two classes, be content with ample incidental protection, and universal good-will will again attend them, greatly enlarging the extent of their market and the list of their customers."

In making the issue of the old system against the new, Mr. Benton takes three propositions as indisputable: first, that the income from customs was larger, population considered, and more free from fluctuation, under the low duty system before the war, than under the high duty since; second, the superiority of low duties over high ones, in relation to their effect upon agriculture and foreign commerce; third, the prosperity of manufactures before the late war and before protection was invented.

In arguing upon these propositions, Mr. Benton proceeds, first, in relation to revenue, to analyse the income of the treasury from customs, commencing with 1789 and coming down to 1808, when the British orders in council, the decrees of the French emperor and our own embargo, broke up our commerce and destroyed and deranged our income from that source. He leaves out the time of the embargo and of the war with Great Britain, as belonging to neither system. From 1789 to 1808, the revenue from customs shows a progressive range of from $4,500,000 to $16,500,000; our population keeping pace, from 4,000,000 to 7,000,000. The revenue, then, commenced with $1,000,000 to 1,000,000 of people; *and rose gradually* to near $2,500,000 for every 1,000,000 of people.

much for the first period—now for the second: beginning with 1817, first year under the operation of the new system, and the revenue, mencing with $26,000,000, falls to $10,000,000; rises again to),000,000, falls to $12,000,000, $13,000,000, and, last year, to ,500,000 for a population of 18,000,000. At the present time, the o of revenue for population is only the same as it was, fifty years ago, ile duties average more than 50 per cent, though the duties in Wash- ton's time averaged only a fourth of that sum. The ratio is now two- is of what it was in Mr. Jefferson's administration, when the average luties was only a third of what it is now. The wars of the French olution had no influence on our revenue; they increased importations not consumption, and duties were only paid on what remained after xportation. In support of his assertions, with regard to the compara- revenue of the two periods, Mr. Benton submitted the following ta- :—

TABLE I.—*Low Revenue Duties, from* 1791 *to* 1808.

s.	Population.	Income.	Years.	Population.	Income.
,.....	4,000,000	$4,309,473	1800,.....	5,300,000	$9,080,932
,.....	.....	3,443,070	1801,.....	.....	10,750,778
,.....	.....	4,225,306	1802,.....	.....	12,438,235
,.....	.....	4,801,065	1803,.....	.....	10,479,417
,.....	.....	5,588,461	1804,.....	.....	11,098,505
,.....	.....	6,567,987	1805,.....	.....	12,936,487
,.....	.....	7,549,640	1806,.....	.....	16,667,698
,.....	.....	7,106,061	1807,.....	.....	15,845,522
,.....	.....	6,610,449	1808,.....	7,000,000	16,363,550

LE II.—*High Protective Duties, from* 1817 *to* 1843.

TABLE III.—*Showing what ought to have been received from Customs, under the Protective System, to have been equal to the receipt under the Revenue System.*

s.	Population.	Income.	Population.	Actual receipts.	Should have been
,	9,000,000	$26,283,348	9,000,000	$26,283,348	$22,500,000
,	.....	17,176,385	.....	17,176,385	.....
,	.....	20,283,608	.....	20,283,608	.....
,	9,638,000	15,005,612	9,638,000	15,005,612	24,000,000
,	.....	13,004,447	.....	13,004,447	25,000,000
,	.....	17,559,761	.....	17,559,761	.....
,	.....	19,088,433	.....	19,088,433	.....
,	.....	17,878,325	.....	17,878,325	.....
,	.....	20,098,713	11,000,000	20,098,713	27,000,000
,	.....	23,341,331	.....	23,341,331	.....
,	.....	19,712,283	.....	19,712,283	.....
,	.....	23,205,523	.....	23,205,523	.....
,	.....	22,681,965	.....	22,681,965	.....
,	12,866,000	21,922,391	12,866,000	21,922,391	31,500,000
,	.....	24,224,441	.....	24,224,441	.....
,	.....	28,405,237	.....	28,405,237	.....
,	.....	21,488,753	.....	21,488,753	.....
,	.....	14,797,782	.....	14,797,782	.....
,	.....	13,458,111	15,000,000	13,458,111	37,500,000
,	.....	21,552,272	.....	21,552,272	.....
,	.....	26,325,839	.....	26,325,839	.....
,	.....	13,315,129	.....	13,315,129	.....
,	.....	15,373,238	.....	15,373,238	.....
,	17,000,000	20,560,439	17,000,000	20,660,439	42,500,000
,	.....	10,159,339	.....	10,159,339	43,000,000
,	.....	15,789,173	.....	15,789,173	.....
,	18,500,000	17,500,000	18,500,000	17,500,000	46,250,000

The third table shows that the same ratio of revenue for population which existed in Mr. Jefferson's time, would, in the present day, yield an income for the treasury of $46,250,000. Mr. Benton says: "These tables speak a language which cannot be misunderstood, and they place in the strongest contrast the working of the two systems during the two periods; the beauty and advantages of one, and the deformities of the other, standing out in the boldest relief. In the first period, amplitude of amount, steadiness of the product and regularity of the increase, strike every beholder. In the second period, all this is reversed; confusion and madness seem to reign in our treasury. Sometimes, millions too much—then not half enough. Sometimes, surpluses to be distributed—then deficits to be supplied. Giving away, one day—begging or borrowing, the next. Always a feast, or a famine—never the right thing. Our poor treasury become a balloon—sometimes soaring above the clouds—then dragging in the mud—now bursting with distension—now collapsing from depletion."

Again, after quoting Mr. Jefferson's last annual message to Congress, showing the prosperous condition of the treasury at that time, Mr. Benton says: "Such was the working of the low duty system—ample and steady revenue—no loans, no taxes, no paper-money—$33,500,000 of public debt paid in eight years—a surplus of $14,000,000 left in the treasury—the result, not of lands exchanged for paper, but the regular result of steady revenue, strict economy and hard money. How different from the state of things under the high duties of the present day! Instead of paying above $30,000,000 of public debt in eight years, we have created near $30,000,000 in four years; instead of a surplus in the treasury, there is a deficit; loans and taxes are the order of the day; and, to crown all, we have an illegal and fraudulent issue of federal paper-money currency, issued by executive power, and sustained by bank alliances. Such is the difference between the working of the two systems after twenty-five years trial of each!"

With regard to the second proposition, that of the superiority of low duties over high duties, in relation to their effect upon agriculture and commerce, Mr. Benton takes the ground, that these two interests go together, the state of the one being an index to the other. The exports make the imports, and agriculture is at the bottom of the whole. He contrasts the exports of the two periods—that before the late war, and that succeeding the war—with a view of showing that, in consequence of the high duty system, with a population of 18,000,000, in 1842, we exported less than we did in 1807, with a population of 7,000,000, under the low duty system. In support of this, he adduces the following tables:—

TABLE OF FOREIGN AND DOMESTIC EXPORTS FROM THE UNITED STATES, FROM 1791 TO 1807.

Years.	Exports.	Population.	Years.	Exports.	Population.
1791,.....	$19,012,041	4,000,000	1800,.....	$70,971,780	5,300,000
1792,.....	20,753,096	.....	1801,.....	94,115,925	.....
1793,.....	26,109,572	.....	1802,.....	72,483,160	.....
1794,.....	33,026,233	.....	1803,.....	55,800,033	.....
1795,.....	47,080,472	.....	1804,.....	77,699,074	.....
1796,.....	67,064,097	.....	1805,.....	95,566,021	.....
1797,.....	56,850,206	.....	1806,.....	101,536,963	.....
1798,.....	61,527,097	.....	1807,.....	108,343,150	7,000,000
1799,.....	78,665,522	.....	1808,.....	Embargo.	.....

TABLE OF FOREIGN AND DOMESTIC EXPORTS FROM THE UNITED STATES, FROM 1817 TO 1843.

Years.	Exports.	Population.	Years.	Exports.	Population.
1817,.....	$87,671,569	9,000,000	1831,.....	$81,310,583	.....
1818,.....	93,281,133	.....	1832,.....	87,176,943	.....
1819,.....	70,142,521	.....	1833,.....	90,140,433	.....
1820,.....	69,691,669	3,638,000	1834,.....	104,336,973	.....
1821,.....	64,974,382	.....	1835,.....	121,693,577	.....
1822,.....	72,160,281	.....	1836,.....	128,663,040	.....
1823,.....	74,699,030	.....	1837, ...	117,419,373	.....
1824,.....	75,886,657	.....	1838,.....	108,486,616	.....
1825,.....	99,535,388	.....	1839,.....	121,028,416	.....
1826,.....	77,595,322	.....	1840,.....	133,685,946	17,000,000
1827,.....	82,324,829	.....	1841,.....	121,851,803	.....
1828,.....	72,264,680	.....	1842,.....	104,691,534	.....
1829,.....	72,358,671	.....	1843,.....	.....	18,500,000
1830,.....	73,840,508	12,866,000			

As there is, in making out tables of this kind, an apparent intricacy, so far as regards re-exportations, it is proper to give Mr. Benton's explanation, that, in comparing the two periods, it makes no difference whether the re-exports are included or not. He says: "I fully understand the nature of our neutral position during the wars of the French revolution, and the effect which that neutrality had in promoting imports for re-exportation. We re-exported much from 1791 to 1807, and have re-exported exactly as much from 1817 to 1844! Mexico, South America and the West Indies, have opened new markets for our re-exportations; and it is a fact, proved by the custom-house returns to be the same. $520,000,000 are, as near as I can ascertain from the most careful research, the amount of re-exportations for each period; so that, in a comparison of the foreign trade in each period, they may either be both omitted or both included, as the speaker pleases. Finding them included in the tables, I choose to use them in that way. The table of revenue has already settled the question in favor of the large amount of foreign goods which remained in the country for consumption. Duties were only paid on the amount so remaining; and a revenue of $16,000,000 or $17,000,000 from customs, with the low duties then paid, show that the importations for home consumption were greater then than now."

Assuming the average exports of the present day to be $100,000,000, Mr. Benton says, take from this sum the article of cotton, now forming two-thirds of our exports, and contrast the balance with that of the exports of 1807, when cotton formed an inconsiderable item, and an immense falling off will be apparent in our exports of agricultural products. Had our exports not been checked by the high duty system, affecting imports, and had they been allowed to increase, in the ratio of the increase of population, to that increase would have been superadded the item of cotton; so that, when all this is considered, Mr. Benton says, "the decline of agriculture, and of the foreign commerce founded upon it, becomes appalling. Leaving out cotton, and the agricultural exports are less now than they were in 1808. They then amounted to $48,000,000; they only amount to about $100,000,000 now, of which, cotton is near two-thirds."

In relation to imports, Mr. Benton says: "After this exposition of our exports under the protective system, it is hardly necessary to trouble the Senate with any detailed view of our imports during the same period. They are obliged to *partake of the same* character, and such is the fact.

They have risen as high as $190,000,000; they have fallen as low as $64,000,000; and they have plunged and floundered backwards and forwards at all amounts between these two wide extremes. They are now at about $100,000,000, which is less than they were at thirty years ago."

Mr. Benton next proceeds to his third proposition—that manufacturers were flourishing and prosperous before the late war; and would, under the old system of duties, have so continued. To show their standing at the close of his first period of twenty-five years, he refers to the census of 1810; in which, however, he states, many imperfections occur, which induced Congress to pass a joint resolution on the 19th of March, 1812, directing the secretary of the treasury, Mr. Gallatin, to have the returns digested and perfected. For this purpose, Mr. Gallatin employed Mr. Tench Coxe, of Philadelphia, an eminent advocate of manufactures and a writer of twenty-seven years standing. He took two years to verify his statements, and after great labor and care presented them. From his report, Mr. Benton read several passages, in which it appears that the manufactures of the United States, in 1813, with a population of 8,000,000, amounted to $200,000,000, advancing at the rate of 20 per cent per annum. Here, says Mr. Benton, are two striking facts: that manufactures had been advancing at the rate of 20 per cent, and that they amounted to $200,000,000 in a population of 8,000,000. Population was only advancing at the rate of 3 per cent per annum; foreign commerce was only increasing at a moderate rate; agriculture was steadily but moderately advancing; but manufactures were going ahead of all other interests, advancing 20 per cent per annum, before protection was invented and before politicians had taken it into their heads to become their patrons. Mr. Coxe, too, in his report, compares the condition of manufactures, at that time, with their condition in England at the nearest approximate period of time in which its population was at the same standard; and the result is, that England proper, in 1787, having a population of 8,500,000, had manufactures, after taking five hundred years to bring them to the perfection they then had attained, amounting to $266,000,000. Here was a striking fact: that manufactures in the United States, under low duties, affording but incidental protection, within thirty years after the country had achieved its independence, had nearly overtaken England which required five hundred years to reach the same goal. Mr. Coxe's work further proves that cotton factories were well established and able to stand alone, in 1810, in Rhode Island, Connecticut and Massachusetts; so it was with regard to all other branches of manufactures, with respect to which, the statistical details gleaned by Mr. Coxe are most abundant. From his report, Mr. Benton quotes very copiously in support of his general proposition. Two passages, italicised, Mr. Benton thinks deserves marked attention. They are as follows:—

"*The facility of retaining and steadily extending this valuable branch (the manufacturing) of the national industry, is manifested by its very early and spontaneous commencement in every county and township, and by its nearly spontaneous and costless growth, with such aids only as have not occasioned any material expense or sacrifice to agriculture or commerce, since they were chiefly incidental to necessary revenue, or resulted from our distance from the foreign consumers of our productions and manufactures of our supplies.*"—Page 50. "*Such are the principal facts, which occur to recollection at this time, evincing the benefits, to owners and cultivators of*

the soil, from the manufactures which have arisen unforced in the United States. Their principal protection by duties, is incidental. Those duties were imposed to raise the necessary revenue, but greatly favored the manufactures."—Page 29, Introduction.

"Such," exclaims Mr. Benton, "were the causes of the growth of manufactures among us. They grew up of themselves, without the knowledge of politicians, and without any aid from federal legislation, except the incidental assistance from the imposition of revenue duties. Their growth was natural—without injury to commerce or agriculture—without injury to revenue; and, what is not to be forgotten, not only without a word of discontent or dissatisfaction in any part of the Union, but with the absolute approbation of all." Mr. Benton then dwells upon the fact, that Mr. Coxe, looking to the future, says not one word about a tariff; the word *tariff*, is not once mentioned in his book. He speaks only of a *safe, cheap, benevolent and infallible* method of *promoting manufactures*, by the diffusion of skill, multiplication of machinery, adoption of new improvements, the application of steam-power, the education of the operatives and the cultivation of good feelings in every part of the Union; "but not a word," adds Mr. Benton, "about protective duties and minimums—not a word about the tariff."

Mr. Benton next adverts to the present condition of manufactures, taking the census of 1840 for reference. He adduces the statistics of products, contrasted with the capital invested in each branch of manufactures, with a view of showing that they are in various instances from 100 to 300 per cent—enormously beyond the yield of products from capital invested in agriculture or other pursuits. He adverts to the large semi-annual dividends, acknowledged by manufacturers under the protective system, and supposes these are not half the reality, if the reserved surpluses were brought to light. He argues, that manufacturers are in no need of such enormous protection as the act of 1842 gives them; and that, to persist longer in requiring more than 30 or 33½ per cent for a maximum, must be suicidal to themselves, as they will rouse the indignation of the mass of the people, who are already aware that they have been "most magnificently humbugged and bamboozled." Under the good old system, which he recommends a return to, the manufacturers would thrive as they did in 1810, harmony would prevail, and, above all things, *stability* would be secured to them.

Mr. Simmons, of Rhode Island, next obtained the floor, and on the 27th and 28th of March, addressed the Senate, occupying its attention for about four hours.

Art. III.—COMMERCE OF RIO JANEIRO.

Rio de Janeiro, the capital of Brazil, contained in 1830, according to M'Culloch, a population of about 160,000,* and is beautifully situated on the western side of a small bay, forming one of the most magnificent natural harbors in the world, both as respects capaciousness and security, for all sorts of vessels. The entrance to the harbor is marked by a remarkable hill in the form of a sugar-loaf, nine hundred feet high, close to

* *It probably contains now about* 200,000 inhabitants.

its west side. The city lies about four miles from the entrance to the bay. To the right, on entering, is the fort of Santa Cruz, within hail of which, all vessels going into the harbor are required to pass, in order to answer any question that may be put to them.

Vessels bound for Rio, coming from the north, should, after rounding Cape Frio, steer due west, keeping about three leagues from the coast, until they come within five or six miles of the Ilha Raza, or Flat Island, lying almost due south from the mouth of the harbor, at the distance of about three leagues. A light-house, the lantern of which is said to be elevated nearly three hundred feet above the level of the sea, was erected on this island in 1829. The light is a revolving one, finishing its revolution in three minutes, and exhibiting alternately a red and a white light. There is also a light-house in the fort of Santa Cruz, the light of which is fixed, and elevated about fifty feet above the level of the sea.* Having reached within five or six miles of the Ilha Raza, ships may enter, by day or night, the dotted line in the cut, marking the fair-way into the harbor. There are no pilots to be met with; and as there are no hidden dangers of any kind, their services are unnecessary. After answering any questions that may be put to them from Fort Santa Cruz, they proceed to Fort Vilganhon, below, or opposite to which, they must bring-to, or come to anchor, allowing no boats to come alongside, but those of the government, until they have received *pratique*, when they will be permitted to proceed to the usual place of anchorage for the merchant shipping.

The trade of Rio is extensive, and has increased rapidly of late years. It is the seat of more than one-half of the foreign commerce of Brazil; and it has, likewise, a very extensive inland trade, particularly with the provinces of Minas Geraes, Goyaz and Matto Grosso. It is the key to the mining districts, furnishing all their supplies, and receiving all their produce for shipment or other disposal. Until 1830, slaves formed one of the principal articles of import into Rio and other Brazilian ports; so many as 45,000 having been imported in one year, of which, according to M'Culloch, Rio received the greater proportion. But according to a convention entered into with Great Britain, this inhuman, infamous traffic, should have ceased in February, 1830.

It appears by a statement made by Stockmeyer, Gracie & Co., dated Rio de Janeiro, 4th of January, 1833, who state that they derived the details from the manuscripts of the vessels clearing the custom-house, that the following quantity of coffee, sugar and hides, were exported from Rio during the six years ending with December, 1832:—

Years.	Coffee. *Bags.*	Sugar. *Cases.*	Hides. *Number.*	Years.	Coffee. *Bags.*	Sugar. *Cases.*	Hides. *Number.*
1827,	350,900	19,644	329,320	1830,	391,785	22,488	266,719
1828,	369,147	19,035	207,268	1831,	448,249	22,004	342,385
1829,	375,107	18,864	351,893	1832,	478,950	16,645	263,657

The value of foreign goods imported into Rio, in 1836, according to a statement given in the Journal de Commercio, was £3,839,379; of which, from Great Britain, £2,005,543; France, £581,571; Portugal and her possessions, £281,885; United States, £225,353; Hanseatic States, £239,384; Uraguay, £96,857; Belgium, £73,789; Spain, £61,270; Sardinia, £56,223; Argentine republic, £44,284; Holland and her colonies, £37,046; Sicily, £33,219; Sweden, £31,589; Chili, £26,135;

* Coulier sur les Phares, 2d edition.

Austria, £14,067; sundries, £31,164. These imports are exclusive of negroes, of whom, according to Waterston, vast numbers continue to be brought from Africa to Rio or the neighboring coast.

The following table, from official sources, indicates the description of articles, with their several quantities, imported to Rio for two years, with the relative proportion of each, drawn from the United States and from Great Britain in the year 1842:—

IMPORTS OF THE LEADING ARTICLES INTO RIO JANEIRO, IN 1841 AND 1842, WITH QUANTITIES FROM GREAT BRITAIN AND THE UNITED STATES IN 1842.

Articles.	1841.	1842.	G. Britain.	U. States.
Ale and porter,.....casks	17,382	24,600	23,835	40
Arms,.....packages	1,277	1,880	320	.....
Brandy,.....pipes	1,548	962	38	20
Butter,.....firkins	23,352	24,566	17,558	192
Candles, tallow,.....boxes	16,239	10,553	125	.....
" comp. and sp.,.....	6,838	7,119	150	4,637
Cheese,.....	4,683	2,932	643	.....
Coals,.....tons	9,525	19,245	17,127	.....
Codfish,.....casks, &c.	36,530	33,641	32,222	202
Copper,.....cases	678	497	463	29
" .....bottoms	2,030	1,528	1,385	143
" .....kegs	54	116	76	40
" .....sheets, &c.	432	220	159	67
Cordage, Coir,.....coils	2,930	3,765	4,491	281
" Russian, &c.,.....	3,372	3,472		
Deals,.....dozen	13,456	14,876	.....	.....
Drugs,.....packages	4,020	5,841	1,539	447
Flour,.....bbls.	231,989	149,118	.....	.....
Gin,.....pipes	28	17½	5	12½
" .....doz jugs	16,376	7,270	.....	.....
" .....demijohns	10,000	650	.....	.....
" .....cases	2,818	1,971	600	.....
Hams,.....casks	680	529	62	35
" .....loose	11,685	10,323	400	8,985
Hardware, &c.,.....packages	5,814	7,040	5,481	.....
Hats,.....cases	1,095	966	141	.....
Iron,.....tons	1,061	1,490	1,490	.....
" .....bars	76,999	32,013	4,509	.....
" .....bundles	3,797	3,631	2,059	.....
" hoops,.....tons	76	67	67	.....
" " .....bundles	2,847	2,707	2,601	.....
Lead, bar,.....bars	2,600	5,405	1,216	1,771
" sheet,.....rolls	320	80	46	.....
Leather, curried,.....packages	1,081	762	198	.....
" wrought,.....	1,436	1,376	453	.....
Linseed oil,.....pipes	178	272	232	.....
" .....jugs, &c.	286	883	171	.....
Manufactures:—				
Cotton,.....packages	36,667	22,482	14,059	5,337
Linen,.....	3,798	2,040	1,663	59
Linen and cotton,.....	593	134	96	.....
Silk,.....	1,505	1,181	315	74
Silk and cotton,.....	15	173	27	.....
Silk and worsted,.....	68	57		
Woollen,.....	5,601	4,972	4,490	6
Woollen and cotton,.....	190	236	192	.....
Mess beef and pork,.....bbls.	1,277	2,312	180	1,154
Nails,.....packages	5,914	8,471	4,983	397
Olive oil,.....pipes	1,047	1,354	78	.....
" .....boxes, &c.	3,898	4,699	.....	.....
Paints and colors,.....*packages*	4,066	8,025	7,818	.....

IMPORTS OF LEADING ARTICLES INTO RIO JANEIRO, IN 1841 AND 1842, etc.—Continued.

Articles.	1841.	1842.	G. Britain.	U. States.
Paper,.....packages	5,646	13,341	149	18
Parasols and umbrellas,.....	368	345	134	.....
Pepper, black,.....bags	749	1,159	446	690
Pitch,.....bbls.	1,897	507	110	35
Raisins, &c.,.....boxes	28,270	28,362	.....	3,119
Raven's duck,.....pieces	3,893	2,513	1,092	500
Rosin,.....bbls.	7,456	6,183	40	6,893
Sail-cloth,.....pieces	3,747	2,689	1,043	1,006
Salt,.....alqueires	717,040	384,177	1,288	.....
Saltpetre,.....kegs, &c.	2,044	3,355	2,705	640
Shot,.....	2,932	4,708	3,564	.....
Soap,.....boxes	42,898	49,955	47,188	499
Steel,.....	1,528	352	218	.....
Tar,.....bbls.	2,910	2,808	290	.....
Tea,.....packages	2,602	2,922	301	1,929
Tin plates,.....boxes	2,137	2,020	1,895	.....
Tobacco,.....packages	1,128	840	48	769
Turpentine,.....bbls.	79	148	47	100
Vermicelli,.....boxes	8,690	7,996	.....	.....
Vinegar,.....pipes	1,599	1,049	.....	.....
Wheat,.....sacks	8,554	21,777	.....	.....
White lead,.....packages	1,307	826	427	.....
Window glass,.....boxes	7,413	3,037	20	.....
Wine, Portugal, ...pipes	9,593	3,877	.....	.....
" Mediterranean, &c.,.....	15,077	9,322	29	.....
" Bordeaux,.....hhds.	3,519	1,830	.....	.....

This return is for the current year, ending 31st December, and does not agree with the United States return, ending 30th September, the quantities being less. The number of bbls. of flour exported from the United States to Brazil, was 198,317, while the above return shows a gross import of 149,118. It is observable, however, that the proportion of cotton goods received from the United States, in 1842, greatly exceeded that of former years. A revolution will probably be effected in the trade of the Brazils, in the adjustment of the new tariff, and the adoption of a new treaty in place of the one with England, which expires in November next.

The flour trade of Rio, with the United States, is on the increase. The stock at Rio, on the 1st of January, 1844, amounted to 48,536 bbls.; of which, 26,319 were in first hands.

The quantity imported, exceeded that of 1842, 49,530 bbls.; and, in the months of November and December alone, were received upwards of 71,000 bbls., independently of 3,000 bbls., in wheat, in December.

The annexed tables, will show the monthly position of the market, and the first, last and extreme prices of each description during the year:—

MOVEMENT OF THE FLOUR MARKET IN 1843.

	Barrels.			*Sales monthly, of each kind.* Barrels.		
Months.	Imported.	Sold.	Exported.	Richm'nd.	Balt., &c.	South'n.
January,.....	12,034	22,977	2,338	16,204	6,773	.....
February,.....	8,166	14,556	2,332	10,887	3,669	.....
March,.....	18,060	11,542	4,223	2,497	4,749	4,296
April,.....	6,584½	17,838	7,623	14,218	3,540	.....
May,.....	14,010	10,880	10,616	4,804	5,054	.....
June,.....	12,355	17,128	2,086	6,530	8,148	150
July,.....	18,542	14,038½	5,407	2,296½	10,710	113

MOVEMENT OF THE FLOUR MARKET IN 1843—Continued.

Months.	Barrels. Imported.	Sold.	Exported.	*Sales monthly, of each kind.* Barrels. Richm'd.	Balt., &c.	South'n.
August,.....	19,231½	10,955	11,117½	995	6,402	2,270
September,.....	20,567	11,795½	4,009	1,405	5,086½	5,252
October,.....	15,442	18,351	3,931	6,345	10,796	210
November,.....	34,831½	14,578	2,678	6,206	6,617	1,305
December,.....	36,193½	35,217	16,540½	15,715½	15,983	2,700½
Total, 1843,.....	216,017	199,856	72,900	88,103	87,527½	16,293½
" 1842,.....	156,487	160,308	63,048	67,725	84,270	3,150
" 1841,.....	242,377	190,492	82,103	45,113	111,606	13,203

RANGE OF PRICES IN 1843.

Quality.	First.	Highest.	Lowest.	Last.
Gallego,.....	16$250	19$500	16$000	16$500
Haxall,.....	16$250	19$250	15$500	16$500
Richmond City,.....	17$000*a*	18$000	16$250	16$250
Baltimore,.....	15$000	17$400	12$000*b*	13$000
" super.,.....	17$000	18$000	16$000	17$000
Philadelphia,.....	14$600	17$500	13$250	13$250
Southern, &c.,.....	14$800	18$250	13$250	14$000
European, 1st quality,.....	18$000	21$250	17$000	17$000
" 2d "	16$500	16$500	12$500*a*	13$500
Chilian,.....	14$500	14$500	12$200	12$200

The market opened with some animation, in January, and the stock in first hands became reduced to the extent of 10,000 bbls. A moderate importation, until July, aided by a steady demand for consumption and re-export, caused prices gradually to advance about 2$500 per bbl., the highest, $19, having been paid from June to August for about 10,000 bbls. Richmond, and 19$500 for small lots, whilst one cargo Baltimore, for export, sold in May, at a price equal to 17$400 for consumption, a cargo at 17$100 and 16$000 to 17$000 having, until August, been the current quotations for regular brands.

In September, the supplies were abundant, new Richmond was received, exportation was limited, the market began to be less buoyant, and dealers declined to purchase largely in the expectation of a considerable decline.

New, both Richmond and Baltimore, were general in October, when prices gave way, and old Gallego was sold at $17, new, at 18$500, Baltimore old, at $14, new, at $15. 23,000 bbls. were received from 16th to 20th November, and during the month, 35,000, when prices declined materially. Gallego, sold early in the month at 18$500; later, Haxall, at 17$500 to $16, with a correspondent decline in Baltimore.

Early in December, several cargoes arrived, and about 7,000 bbls. Baltimore and southern were taken for export; but the market did not revive, and nearly 8,000 bbls. of Richmond and Baltimore were taken at the lowest quotations of the year. The receipts continued excessive from the United States, the stock was further increased by the arrival of 4,700 sacks, principally in wheat, from Valparaiso, and prices became nominal. No disposition to purchase, was shown, except at a reduction in prices; but holders were firm, and a tone was given to the market, on the 23d, by the purchase of 2,000 bbls. Gallego, at 16$300, and towards

a Cash. *b* Inferior.

the close of the year several parcels Richmond changed hands, at 16$500. Baltimore, influenced by the Chili wheat, realized only $13, and 13$500 for small parcels.

With so extraordinary an importation during two successive months, together, upwards of 74,000 bbls., the market was well sustained at the close of the year, when the unsold stock consisted of 10,230 bbls. Gallego, 4,052 Haxall, 642 Rutherford, 16,553 Baltimore, 300 Richmond country, 2,930 Southern, 200 Brandywine; in all, 34,907 bbls.

MEDIUM PRICES.

	January to June.	July to Dec.		January to June.	July to Dec.
Richmond,.....	17$245	17$223	Southern,.....	14$954	15$029
Baltimore,.....	15$729	14$818	European, 1st qual.,...	17$731	19$140
Philadelphia,.....	15$649	15$936	" 2d " ...	16$500	14$454

SUMMARY OF THE TRANSACTIONS IN 1843.

		Barrels.
Stock in all hands, 1st January, 1843,.....		48,536
Imported direct,.....	214,940	
" coastwise,.....	1,077	216,017
		264,553
Shipped coastwise,.....	32,943½	
Re-exported,.....	39,956½	72,900
		194,653
Imported in wheat,.....		4,732
		199,385
Stock in first hands, 30th Dec., 1843,.....	34,907	
" second " " 1843,.....	33,728	68,635
Consumption in 1843,.....		127,750

ART. IV.—CITIES AND TOWNS IN THE UNITED STATES.

INCREASE OF CITIES AND TOWNS OF FIVE THOUSAND, AND LESS THAN TEN THOUSAND INHABITANTS.

IN the number of the Merchants' Magazine, for May, 1844, I gave some account of the increase of the thirty-six principal cities and towns in the United States, containing each, 10,000 inhabitants and upwards, according to the censuses of 1830 and 1840. In Table III., 1840, in the 7th column, should be 1830; and under the caption, proportion of population of cities and towns to that of the states, per cent, insert 1830 in the 11th column, and 1840 in the 12th column. Inadvertently, in that article, the population of Louisville, Kentucky, in 1830, was stated at 12,564, while it should have been 10,341; and its increase in ten years should have been 10,869, instead of 8,046, and 105·10, instead of 68·81 per cent, making it the fourth city in the order of increase. In consequence of this error, the following corrections should be made in *the lines, as indicated* by the captions of the columns:—

	Census of 1830.	Increase in 10 yrs.	Increase per cent.	Census of 1840.
Louisville, Ky., (Table I.).....	10,341	10,869	105.10	.....
Total in 15 cities, "	737,967	396,961	53.79	.....
Total in 16 cities, "	768,256	375,933	51.53	.....
Total in 16 cities, (Table II.,).....	768,256	375,933	51.53	.....
Total in 36 cities and towns, (Tab. II.,)	932,279	491,442	52.71	.....
Total U. S., exc. 36 cit. & t'ns, "	11,933,741	3,711,991	31.94	15,645,732
Total population of U. States, "	.....	4,203,433	.....	17,069,453

	Census of cities and towns in 1830.	Increase in 10 yrs.	Incr. pr. cent.	Cens. of cit. and t'wns in 1840.	Proportion of pop. of cit. & tn's to that of the states, p. ct., 1830.
15 states, and D. of Col., (Tab. III.,)	901,990	492,470	54.59	.....	9.49
16 states, and D. of Col., "	932,279	491,442	52.71	.....	9.24
Total, of the U. States, "	932,279	491,442	52.71	.....	7.24

In the present number, it is proposed to extend the tables so as to embrace all the towns containing 5,000 inhabitants. The first table contains all the cities and towns, with from 5,000 to 10,000 inhabitants, in 1840, together with the census of 1830, and the increase in the ten preceding years.

TABLE V.—CITIES AND TOWNS.

MAINE.	Cen. of 1830.	Inc. in 10 yrs.	Inc. p. ct.	Cen. of 1840.
Bangor,.....	2,867	5,760	200.91	8,627
Bath,.....	3,773	1,368	36.25	5,141
Thomaston,.....	4,214	2,013	47.76	6,227
Augusta,.....	3,980	1,334	33.51	5,314
Gardiner,.....	3,709	1,333	35.93	5,042
NEW HAMPSHIRE.				
Portsmouth,.....	8,026	Loss, 139	1.73	7,887
Dover,.....	5,449	1,009	18.51	6,458
Nashua,.....	2,414	3,640	150.78	6,054
MASSACHUSETTS.				
Cambridge,.....	6,072	2,337	38.48	8,409
Roxbury,.....	5,247	3,842	73.22	9,089
Lynn,.....	6,138	3,229	52.60	9,367
Marblehead,.....	5,149	426	8.27	5,575
Danvers,.....	4,228	792	18.73	5,020
Andover,.....	4,530	677	14.94	5,207
Gloucester,..... }	7,510	1,490	19.84	{ 6,350
Rockport,..... }				{ 2,650
Taunton,.....	6,042	1,603	26.53	7,645
Middleborough,.....	5,008	77	1.53	5,085
Newburyport,.....	6,375	786	12.32	7,161
Worcester,.....	4,173	3,324	79.65	7,497
Plymouth,.....	4,758	523	10.99	5,281
Fall River,.....	4,158	2,580	62.04	6,738
Nantucket,.....	7,202	1,810	25.13	9,012
RHODE ISLAND.				
Smithfield,.....	6,857	2,677	39.04	9,534
Cumberland,.....	3,675	1,550	42.17	5,225
Newport,.....	8,010	323	4.03	8,333
Warwick,.....	5,529	1,197	21.64	6,726
CONNECTICUT.				
Hartford city,.....	7,074	2,394	33.84	9,468
New London city,.....	4,335	1,184	27.31	5,519
Saybrook,..... }				{ 3,417
Chester,..... }	5,018	555	11.06	{ 974
Westbrook,..... }				{ 1,182
NEW YORK.				
Bethlehem,..... }	6,082	68	1.11	{ 3,238
New Scotland,..... }				{ 2,913
Chenango,.....	3,730	1,735	46.51	5,465

TABLE V.—Continued.

NEW YORK—Continued.	Cen. of 1830.	Inc. in 10 yrs.	Inc. p. ct.	Cen. of 1840.
Auburn,	4,486	1,140	25.41	5,626
Sempronius,	5,705	Loss, 157	2.75	1,304
Monrovia,				2,010
Niles,				2,234
Plattsburg,	4,913	1,505	30.59	6,416
Johnstown,	7,700	1,167	15.15	5,409
Bleecker,				346
Mohawk,				3,112
Sparta,	3,777	2,064	54.64	5,841
Lenox,	5,039	401	7.95	5,440
Lyme,	2,873	2,599	90.46	5 472
Watertown,	4,768	259	5.43	5,027
Ellisburg,	5,292	57	1.07	5,349
Canajoharie,	4,347	799	18.38	5,146
Florida,	2,851	2,363	82.82	5,214
Amsterdam,	3,356	2,714	80.87	5,333
Perth,				737
Lockport,	3,823	5,302	138.68	9,125
Rome,	4,360	1,320	30.27	5,680
Whitestown,	4,410	746	16.91	5,156
Boonville,	2,746	2,773	100.98	5,519
Onondaga,	5,668	Loss, 10	.17	5,658
Manlius,	7,375	936	12.69	5.509
Dewitt,				2,802
Canandaigua,	5,162	490	9.47	5,652
Phelps,	4,876	687	14.08	5,563
Seneca,	6,207	866	13.95	7,073
Barre,	4,768	771	16.17	5,539
Schenectady,	4,268	2,516	58.95	6,784
Schoharie,	5,157	377	7.50	5,534
Oswegatchie,	3,993	1,726	43.22	5,719
Owego,	3,076	2,264	73.60	5,348
Ithaca,	5,270	380	7.21	5,650
Hector,	5,212	440	8.44	5,652
Dryden,	5,206	240	4.61	5,446
Catskill,	4,861	478	9.83	5,339
Kingston,	4,170	1,654	39.66	5,824
Saugerties,	3,747	2,469	65.89	6,216
New Paltz,	4,973	435	8.74	5,408
Hudson city,	5,392	280	5.19	5,672
Mount Pleasant,	4,932	2,375	48.15	7.307
Cortlandt,	3,840	1,752	45.62	5,592
Southampton,	4,850	1,355	27.93	6,205
Huntington,	5,582	980	17.55	6,562
Brookhaven,	6,095	955	15.66	7,050
Williamsburg,	1,620	4,769	294.38	5,094
Bushwick,				1,295
Hempstead,	6,215	1,394	22.42	7,609
Oyster Bay,	5,348	517	9.66	5,865
Newtown,	2,610	2,444	93.63	5,054
Newbury,	6,424	2,509	39.05	8,933
Minisink,	4,979	114	2.28	5,093
Warwick,	5,009	104	2.07	5,113
NEW JERSEY.				
Bergen,	4,651	604	12.98	5,255
Paterson,	7,710	2,369	30.72	7,596
Aquackenonk,				2,483
Pequannock,	4,551	639	14.04	5,190
North Brunswick,	5,274	592	11.22	5,866
Answell,	7,385	501	6.78	3,071
Delaware,				2,305
Raritan,				2,510

TABLE V.—Continued.

NEW JERSEY—Continued.	Cen. of 1830.	Inc. in 10 yrs.	Inc. p. c.	Cen. of 1840.
Nottingham,	3,900	1,209	31.00	5,109
Middletown,	5,128	935	18.23	6,063
Upper Freehold,	4,826	200	4.14	5,026
Shrewsbury,	4,700	1,217	25 89	5,917
Freehold,	5,481	822	14.99	6,303
Northampton,	5,516	1,302	23.60	6,818
Evesham,	4,239	821	19.36	5,060
PENNSYLVANIA.				
Borough of Reading,	5,856	2,554	43.61	8,410
Harrisburg,	4,312	1,668	38.68	5,980
Earl, / *West Earl*,	6,058	Loss, 353	5.82	3,982 / 1,723
Lancaster city,	7,704	713	9.25	8,417
Pitt,	3,924	2,078	52.95	6,002
DELAWARE.				
Wilmington city,	6,628	1,739	25.84	8,367
MARYLAND.				
Fredericktown,	4,427	755	17.05	5,182
VIRGINIA.				
Wheeling city,	5,221	2,664	51.02	7,885
Lynchburg,	4,630	1,765	38.12	6,395
GEORGIA.				
Augusta city,	6,696	Loss, 293	4.37	6,403
TENNESSEE.				
Nashville,	5,566	1,363	24.48	6,929
KENTUCKY.				
Lexington,	6,026	971	16.04	6,997
OHIO.				
Cleveland city,	1,076	4,995	464.21	6,071
Columbus city,	2,435	3,613	148.37	6,048
Mill Creek,	3,356	2,893	86.20	6,249
Steubenville,	2,937	2,266	77.15	5,203
Dayton,	2,950	3,117	105.66	6,067
MICHIGAN.				
City of Detroit,	2,222	6,880	309.63	9,102
DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.				
Georgetown,	8,441	Loss, 1,129	13.37	7,312
Alexandria city,	8,241	218	2.64	8,459
	.....	164,583	.....	.....
	.....	Loss, 2,081	.....	.....
109 cities and towns,	540,730	162,503	30.05	703,232

The town of *Dunstable*, New Hampshire, in 1830, has since been changed to that of Nashua.

In order to show the increase of the population in ten years, I have put down in the first column, not only the names of the towns such as they stood in 1830, but also those of the towns which have been set off from them, during this period, as far as I could ascertain them. *Rockport*, in Massachusetts, was set off from Gloucester, July 27, 1840. *Chester*, Connecticut, was set off from Saybrook, in May, 1836; and Westbrook is a parish in Saybrook, and its population, in 1830, included in that of Saybrook. *New Scotland*, New York, was set off as a separate town from Bethlehem, April 25, 1832. *Morovia* and *Niles* were set off from Sempronius, March 20, 1833. *Bleeker* was set off, April 4, 1831, and *Mohawk*, April 4, 1837, from Johnstown. *Perth* was set off from Amsterdam, April 18, 1838. Part of Onondaga was annexed to *Camillus*, May 1, 1834, but what portion, I have no means of ascertaining. *Devitt* was set off from *Manlius, March 12*, 1835.

In the census of 1830, Williamsburgh and Bushwick are put together, and in 1840, they are separate, Williamsburgh having been set off from *Bushwick*, and incorporated March 20, 1840. Paterson, New Jersey, was set off from *Aquackanonck*, and incorporated January 27, 1831; the aggregate of these two towns was 10,079, in 1840. *Delaware* and *Raritan* were set off from Amwell, and incorporated February 23, 1838. Earl, in Lancaster county, Pennsylvania, is presumed to have embraced *West Earl*, in 1830.

In the census of 1830, Middletown and city are put together, with a population of 6,892, of which, 2,965 belonged to the city, and 3,927 to the town; and, in that of 1840, the city contained 3,511, and the town 3,699. They are omitted in the above table.

The population of Wilmington, Delaware, of Savannah and Augusta, Georgia, and St. Louis, Missouri, is not specified in the census of 1830, and the number is derived from other sources.

St. Louis township, in St. Louis county, Missouri, is not specified in the census of 1830, and in 1840, contained a population of 8,116, and is not included in the above table.

The city of Natchez, Mississippi, with a population of 2,789, in 1830, is not specified in the census of 1840, but in the *Compend*, its population was 4,800, in 1840.

In the census of 1840, Hagerstown, Maryland is not specified, but in the *Compend*, it is put down among the principal towns, with 7,179 inhabitants; which is 3,808 more than 3,371, in the census of 1830, and 226 more than the increase of the whole of Washington county, in which it is situated. It is omitted in our list. Also, Portsmouth, Virginia, with a population of 6,477, is put down in the census of 1840, as a county, while it should have joined to Norfolk county, to which it belongs, as in the *Compend*, where it is placed among the principal towns; but it is not found in the census of 1830, and, therefore, is not inserted in our list.

The five towns, namely, Saybrook, Connecticut, Bethlehem and Sempronius, New York, Amwell, New Jersey, and Earl, Pennsylvania, contained over 5,000 inhabitants each, in the census of 1830, but in 1840, they had less than 5,000, though they were included in the above table; so that, instead of 109 towns of this class, there were only 104, to which we may add St. Louis township, in St. Louis county, Missouri, Hagerstown, Maryland, and Portsmouth, Virginia, making 107 towns of this class.

The number of cities and towns with over 20,000 inhabitants, in 1830, was 8, and 16, in 1840; the number, with between 10,000 and 20,000, was 11, in 1830, and 20, in 1840; and the number, with between 5,000 and 10,000, was 66, in 1830, and 107, in 1840; total, 85, in 1830, and 143, in 1840. After deducting the 5 towns which had less than 5,000 inhabitants, in 1840, the difference between the remaining 80 and 143, will be 63 towns, which have risen in the ten years to the rank of having 5,000 inhabitants.

The increase of the number of the cities and towns of over 20,000 inhabitants, in 1840, in the table, in the ten years, was 100 per cent; of those between 10,000 and 20,000, 81·81 per cent; of those between 5,000 and 10,000, 65·15 per cent; and of the whole number, 70·58 per cent.

The next table shows the increase of the population of the three classes of cities and towns, during the ten years, and their aggregate, together with *the proportion, per cent*, which their aggregate bears to that of the states *respectively, and the* difference, marked —, when there has been a loss.

TABLE VI.

STATES.	Census of 1830.	Inc. in 10 yrs.	Inc. per ct.	Census of 1840.	No. of cities.	Pop. of cit. in 1830.	Inc. in 10 yrs.	Inc. per ct.	Pop. of cit. in 1840.	No. of cities and towns.	Pop. of cit. and t'ns in 1830.	Inc. in 10 yrs.	Inc. per ct.
Maine,	399,455	102,338	25.61	501,793	...	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	12,598	2,620	20.79
New Hampshire,	269,328	15,246	5.66	284,574	...	.....	.....	.....	.....	...	.....	.....	.....
Massachusetts,	610,408	127,291	20.85	737,699	2	67,866	46,313	68.24	114,179	4	37,054	12,584	33.96
Rhode Island,	97,199	11,631	11.96	108,830	1	16,833	6,338	37.65	23,171	...	.....	.....	.....
Connecticut,	297,675	12,303	4.13	309,978	...	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	10,180	2,780	27.30
New York,	1,918,608	510,313	26.59	2,428,921	4	251,399	151,456	60.24	402,855	7	55,952	35,974	64.29
New Jersey,	320,823	52,483	16.35	373,306	...	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	10,953	6,337	57.85
Pennsylvania,	1,348,233	375,800	27.87	1,724,033	2	201,365	77,787	38.61	279,152	1	2,801	7,288	260.19
Delaware,	76,748	1,337	1.74	78,085	...	.....	.....	.....	.....	...	.....	.....	.....
Maryland,	447,040	22,979	5.14	470,019	1	80,620	21,693	26.90	102,313	...	.....	.....	.....
Virginia,	1,211,405	28,392	2.34	1,239,797	1	16,060	4,093	25.48	20,153	2	18,136	3,920	21.61
Georgia,	516,823	174,569	33.77	691,392	...	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	7,303	3,911	53.55
Alabama,	309,527	281,229	90.85	590,756	...	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	3,194	9,478	296.74
Louisiana,	215,739	136,672	63.35	352,411	1	49,826	52,367	105.09	102,193	...	.....	.....	.....
Tennessee,	681,904	147,306	21.60	829,210	...	...	.....	.....	.....	...	.....	.....	.....
Kentucky,	687,917	91,911	13.36	779,828	1	10,341	10,869	105.10	21,210	...	.....	.....	.....
Ohio,	937,903	581,564	62.00	1,519,467	1	24,831	21,507	86.61	46,338	...	.....	.....	.....
Missouri,	140,455	243,247	173.18	383,702	...	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	5,852	10,617	181.42
Michigan,	31,639	180,628	570.90	212,267	...	.....	.....	.....	.....	...	.....	.....	.....
District of Columbia,	39,834	3,878	9.73	43,712	1	18,826	4,538	24.10	23,364	...	.....	.....	.....
	10,558,663	3,101,117	29.46	13,659,780	15	737,967	396,961	53.79	1,134,928	20	.....	.....	.....
South Carolina,	581,185	13,213	2.27	594,398	1	30,289	Loss, 1,028	3.39	29,261	...	.....	.....	.....
	11,139,848	3,114,330	27.95	14,254,178	16	768,256	395,933	51.53	1,164,189	20	164,023	95,509	58.22

TABLE VI.—Continued.

STATES.	Pop. of cit. and t'ns in 1840.	No. of cit. and t'ns.	Pop. of cit. and t'ns in 1830.	Inc. in 10 yrs.	Inc. pr. ct.	Pop. of cit. and t'ns in 1840.	Total No. of cities and t'ns.	Pop. of cit. and t'ns in 1830.	Inc. in 10 yrs.	Inc. p. cent.	Pop. of cit. and t'ns in 1840.	Prop. p. c. of this pop. of cit. and t'ns to that of the states, in 1830.	1840.	Differences.
Maine,	15,218	5	18,543	11,808	63.67	30,351	6	31,141	14,428	46.33	45,569	7.79	9.08	1.29
New Hampshire,	.....	3	15,889	4,510	28.38	20,399	3	15,889	4,510	28.38	20,399	5.89	7.16	1.27
Massachusetts,	49,638	14	76,590	23,496	30.67	100,086	20	181,510	82,393	45.39	263,903	29.73	35.67	5.94
Rhode Island,	.....	4	24,071	5,747	23.87	29,818	5	40,904	12,085	29.54	52,989	42.08	48.69	6.61
Connecticut,	12,960	3	16,427	4,133	25.15	20,560	4	26,607	6,913	25.98	33,520	8.93	10.81	1.88
New York,	91,926	48	227,143	63,120	27.78	290,263	59	534,494	250,550	46.87	785,044	27.85	32.32	4.47
New Jersey,	17,290	12	63,361	11,211	17.69	74,572	13	74,314	17,548	23.61	91,862	23.16	24.60	1.44
Pennsylvania,	10,089	5	27,854	6,660	23.91	34,514	8	232,020	91,735	39.53	323,755	17.20	18.79	1.59
Delaware,	.....	1	6,628	1,739	25.84	8,367	1	6,628	1,739	25.84	8,367	8.63	10.71	2.08
Maryland,	.....	1	4,427	755	17.05	5,182	2	85,047	22,448	26.39	107,495	19.02	23.08	4.06
Virginia,	22,056	2	9,851	4,429	44.96	14,280	5	44,047	12,442	28.24	56,489	3.63	4.55	.92
Georgia,	11,214	1	6,696	Loss, 293	4.37	6,403	2	13,999	3,618	25.84	17,617	2.70	2.54	—.16
Alabama,	12,672	...	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	3,194	9,478	296.74	12,672	1.03	2.14	1.11
Louisiana,	.....	...	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	49,826	52,367	105.09	102,193	23.09	28.99	5.90
Tennessee,	.....	1	5,566	1,363	24.48	6,929	1	5,566	1,363	24.48	6,929	.81	1.01	.20
Kentucky,	.....	1	6,026	971	16.04	6,997	2	16,367	11,840	72.34	28,207	2.37	3.61	1.34
Ohio,	.....	5	12,754	16,884	132.37	29,638	6	37,585	38,391	102.14	75,976	4.00	5.00	1.00
Missouri,	16,469	...	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	5,852	10,617	181.42	16,469	4.16	4.29	.13
Michigan,	.....	1	2,222	6,880	309.63	9,102	1	2,229	6,880	309.63	9,102	7.02	4.28	—2.74
District of Columbia,	.....	2	16,682	Loss, 911	5.46	15,771	3	35,508	3,627	10.21	39,135	89.13	89.53	.40
	.....	...	.....	.....	.....	.....	144	1,442,720	654,972	45.39	2,097,692	13.66	15.35	1.69
South Carolina,	.....	...	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	30,283	Loss, 1,028	3.39	29,261	5.21	4.92	—.29
	259,532	109	540,730	162,502	30.05	703,232	145	1,473,009	653,944	44.39	2,126,953	13.22	14.92	1.70
Population of other places in the United States,								11,387,693	3,548,707	31.16	14,936,400	.....	.....	.....
Total,								12,860,702	4,202,651	32.67	17,063,353	.....	.....	.....
Naval service,								5,318	782	14.70	6,100	.....	.....	.....
Total population of the United States,								12,866,020	4,203,433	32.62	17,069,453	11.44	12.46	1.02

The next table is added, in order to show, separately, the increase of the population of those states and territories which are not included in Table VI.

TABLE VII.

States and Territories.	Census of 1830.	Increase in 10 yrs.	Increase per cent.	Census of 1840.
Vermont,.....	280,652	11,296	4.02	291,948
North Carolina,.....	737,987	15,432	2.09	753,419
Mississippi,.....	136,621	239,030	174.95	375,651
Indiana,.....	343,031	342,835	99.94	685,866
Illinois,.....	157,445	318,738	202.44	476,183
Arkansas,.....	30,388	67,186	221.09	97,574
Florida Territory,.....	34,730	19,747	56.85	54,477
Wisconsin "	.....	30,945	.....	30,945
Iowa "	.....	43,112	.....	43,112
9 states and territories,.....	1,720,854	1,088,321	63.24	2,809,175
20 states, and Dist. of Columbia,	11,139,848	3,114,330	27.95	14,254,178
30 states and territories,.....	12,860,702	4,202,651	32.67	17,063,353
Naval service,.....	5,318	782	14.70	6,100
Total pop. of the United States,...	12,866,020	4,203,433	32.62	17,069,453

If we deduct from the population of these nine states and territories, that of Vermont and North Carolina, whose increase was small, we shall find that the average increase of the seven remaining ones, was over 151 per cent, as follows:—

	Census of 1830.	Increase in 10 years.	Increase per cent.	Census of 1840.
9 states and territories,.....	1,720,854	1,088,321	63.24	2,809,175
Vermont and North Carolina,.....	1,018,639	26,728	2.62	1,045,367
7 states and territories,.....	702,215	1,061,593	151.17	1,763,808

It will be perceived that there was a difference in the increase, not only of the several states and territories, but also of the several cities and towns, of 5,000 inhabitants and upwards, during the ten years from 1830 to 1840. In respect to the states, while the increase of Delaware was less than 2 per cent, that of Michigan was over 57 per cent. Generally, the increase was much larger in the new, than in the old states. A few of the cities and towns lost inhabitants, and some of these by an actual decrease of population, their limits remaining the same; as Charleston, South Carolina, and Georgetown, District of Columbia, while the rest lost, it is presumed, generally, in consequence of setting off portions of their territory as separate towns, or by annexing them to other towns.

It will be perceived that, in 1840, considerably more than half (54·73 per cent) of the population of these cities and towns, belonged to those of the first class, containing over 200,000 inhabitants each; and that only about one-eighth (12·20 per cent) to those of the second class, while a little less than one-third (33·06 per cent) belonged to the third class. The increase of the first two classes of cities and towns, was nearly twice that of the third class, while the average increase of their aggregate, was about one and a half times that of the aggregate of the states to which they belong, making their proportional increase 1·70 per cent greater than during the ten years.

There is also a marked difference *in the* proportional increase of the aggregate *of the population of the cities* and towns in the several states.

It varies from 309 per cent, in Michigan, to 10 per cent, in the District of Columbia, while there is a *loss* of 3·39 per cent, in South Carolina, or over 1 per cent more than the increase of the population in the state.

As we look upon the proportion per cent, of the population of the cities and towns, to that of the several states, we see that the proportion is very various in these states, both in 1830 and in 1840. In the District of Columbia, which is very peculiarly situated, consisting of the three cities mentioned in the table, and the country part of Washington and Alexandria, the cities contained over 89 per cent of the whole population of the district, while the proportion in Tennessee was less than 1 per cent, in 1830, and they were but little changed in 1840.

In looking over the differences, in the proportion, in the several states, in 1830 and in 1840, it will be perceived that there has been an increase per cent, in all, except Georgia, Michigan and South Carolina. As to Georgia, whose increase was more than the average of that of the United States, and in which, while one of the cities (Savannah) was among the first in point of increase, among these cities and towns, and Augusta city lost population, it is not surprising that the proportion in this agricultural state should be less in 1840, than in 1830. As there was only one city of 5,000 inhabitants, in Michigan, in 1840, and as the increase of that state was so enormous in consequence of emigrants settling the country, we need expect anything but a decrease of the proportion of this class in these ten years. But in South Carolina, whose whole increase was only 2·27 per cent, and exclusive of its capital, only 2·58 per cent: and whose population are, to a great degree, agricultural, there being only one city (Charleston) with 5,000 inhabitants, and that city having lost 1,028 of its population in the ten years, the proportion must, of course, be less, in 1840, than in 1830.

The population of nearly all of the 145 cities and towns (only a few of them being generally engaged in agricultural pursuits) are engaged in commerce and manufactures, in other words, commerce and manufactures are what mainly have built up, sustained and increased these cities and towns. This is the case, particularly with the 36 cities and towns of over 10,000 inhabitants, in which the increase was 52·71 per cent, and nearly twice that of the aggregate of the states to which they belong.

It seems as a general inference to be drawn from the above tables, that, with the exception of the District of Columbia, perhaps, the proportion of the population who are directly and indirectly employed in, and dependent upon, for a living, in the twenty-one states, and in all the states and territories, manufactures and commerce, may be considered as represented by the proportion, per cent, of the population of the cities and towns to that of the states, respectively and collectively, in 1830 and 1840; and also its increase and decrease, by the differences during the ten years, from 1830 to 1840, as shown in the last three columns of Table VI. Thus, over and above the increase of the aggregate population of the twenty-one states, that of these classes was about 1·70 per cent: and over and above that of the whole population of the thirty states and territories, that of these classes was about 1 per cent, during these ten years. Thus, also, in the last column, supposed to represent the increase of these classes over that of the whole population, the increase has been the greatest in

Rhode Island, next in Massachusetts, next in Alabama, next in Maryland, &c., while there has been a decrease in only three out of the twenty-one states, and this decrease may be accounted for by the suggestions above respecting these three states. J. C.

ART. V.—THE COMMERCIAL SYSTEM OF THE UNITED STATES.

THE commerce of the country, we hardly require to be told, at the present time, has grown to enormous magnitude. The ports of the sea-coast and the rivers of the west, from the mouth of the Penobscot to the harbor of Charleston, and from Chicago to New Orleans, are crowded with its hulks and cordage; and its sails every where dot the ocean and the lakes. It is the design of the present article to unfold, in a condensed form, those general laws which have been established by the government, bearing upon the shipping continually entering and departing from the United States.

It is obvious, that, in order to ensure the safety of the persons and property ever afloat upon the sea, in merchant ships, as well as to provide adequate revenue to the government, there must be established certain laws for the prosecution of commerce. The policy of every civilized government has uniformly enacted commercial regulations for the protection of its own shipping and seamen; and we shall first point out the mode in which our own government ascertains the precise character of its vessels, as well as those which enter its ports from abroad.

During the first administration of President Washington, in 1792, the policy of protecting our own commerce, was adopted, by the passing of acts regulating those vessels which are employed in the foreign trade, the coasting trade and the fisheries of the country. These have continued down to the present time, with but few important modifications. Under those acts, the various vessels engaged in our commerce, are divided into five different classes. The first, embraces those of our own ships that are employed in foreign trade, which are entitled to be *registered*. The second, ships of the United States that are employed in the coasting trade, or fisheries, which are entitled to be *enrolled and licensed*. The third, ships built out of the United States, but owned by citizens, which are entitled to a *certificate of ownership*. The fourth, ships built in the United States, but owned, wholly or partly, by foreigners, which are entitled to be *recorded*. The fifth, ships built out of the United States and owned by foreigners, which are deemed *alien vessels*. Each of these different classes of vessels we shall consider in their proper order.

The vessels which are registered, and also those duly qualified to carry on the coasting trade and the fisheries, are alone deemed *vessels of the United States*, entitled to all the privileges granted to such vessels; those privileges, continuing only as long as such vessels are wholly owned by citizens, and commanded by a citizen or citizens of the country. Those ships which are entitled to be enrolled, are vessels of twenty tons or upwards, possessing the same qualifications as are required for registered ships, namely: that they be built within the United States and be wholly owned by citizens; *and if under twenty tons* they are entitled to a license.

It has been remarked, that ships built within the United States, and belonging wholly or in part to foreigners, are entitled to be *recorded*, for the encouragement of ship-building; and ships built out of the United States, but owned by citizens, are entitled to a *certificate of ownership;* while vessels built out of the United States and owned by foreigners, are deemed *alien vessels.* The place of registry, is the collector's district where the vessel belongs at the time of the registry, which is deemed the place, or nearest to the place, where the actual owner or the acting owner usually resides; and the registry must be made out by the collector of the district. By a law of the United States, all vessels, either registered, enrolled or licensed, must have their names, and the ports to which they belong, painted upon their sterns.

Our own commercial system, it is, perhaps, well known, is based upon a reciprocal policy. The first navigation act of the United States, which may be regarded as the foundation of the navigation laws subsequently established, tenders reciprocity to all nations, and retaliation to those powers that are disposed to enact illiberal commercial regulations regarding us. The design of our navigation laws, like those of every other country, doubtless, has been to protect our own shipping and our own seamen; but, where a liberal intercourse has been established with us, by other nations, we have ever been disposed to put our own commercial laws upon the same footing.* For the purpose of protecting commerce, the first act to which we have alluded, prohibits foreign vessels from importing into the United States, under penalty of forfeiture of the vessel and cargo, any merchandise, except of the growth, production or manufacture, of the country where such vessel belongs—extending the act, however, to those nations that have a similar regulation. So, also, foreign vessels are prohibited from transporting merchandise from one port to another of our own country, although they are permitted to carry, from one port to another, the cargoes originally imported into the country, provided that they have not been unladened. In our various treaties with the principal commercial nations, to which our commerce is extended, a reciprocal policy has been uniformly recognized.

The most useful and important agencies in the superintendence of the commerce of the country, are the custom-houses that are established at the principal ports of the seacoast, as well as those of the lakes. With a view to the organization of the custom-houses, the seacoast of the United States is divided into three great coasting districts. These are divided into smaller collection districts, in each of which a collector is appointed for the purpose of enforcing the execution of the revenue laws. By the act of 1799, that may be considered the basis of the revenue system, it is provided, that collectors, naval officers and surveyors, shall be appointed in the various collection districts of the country. Naval officers and surveyors are required in the larger districts, to aid the collector in the execution of his duties. So also appraisers, weighers, measurers and guagers, are appointed to perform certain prescribed duties, but

* We here subjoin a list of the documents which are necessary for American vessels, on leaving the ports of the United States. 1. The Passport. 2. The Sea Letter, (in some cases.) 3. The Register, or proof of property. 4. The List of Crew. 5. The Charter Party, (when given.) 6. The Bill of Lading. 7. The Invoices. 8. The Log Book. 9. The Bill of Health. 10. The General Clearance. 11. The Clearing Manifest.
On entering. 1. Manifest. 2. List of Passengers.

they are all subordinate to the collector. Returns must be made by the collector, every three months, to the treasury department, as well as to the secretary of state. To the register of the treasury, he makes quarterly returns of the state of commerce between our own and foreign countries, of the amount of the tonnage in his district, and the certificates granted by him under the acts for the enrolling and the registering of vessels. To the secretary of state, he transmits lists of seamen registered within his district, and an account of any impressments made from American vessels that are reported to him. From the various returns transmitted to him, by the custom-houses of the country, the annual reports are issued from the office of the secretary of the treasury. The duties of the separate officers of the custom-houses, are clearly prescribed by law. The design of the establishment of these several custom-houses, is, to execute the laws regulating the commerce of the country, and to collect the revenues accruing from its commercial regulations.

We have remarked, that our own vessels enjoy certain privileges under the navigation laws of the United States. Among those privileges, are the exemption from the payment of "light-money," a duty of fifty cents per ton upon every foreign vessel not possessing the privilege of a vessel of the United States. Those American vessels that have three-fourths of the crew Americans, and officered by Americans, pay no tonnage duty; nor do foreign vessels, entitled to the privileges of American vessels; but all other vessels pay fifty cents per ton, which, in addition to the "light-money," likewise of fifty cents per ton, required to be paid by foreign vessels, makes one dollar per ton.

The increase of navigation upon the western waters, renders it a subject of interest to the people. British vessels, rafts and other vehicles of commerce, upon the lakes between the United States and Canada, pay, in our ports, the same custom-house charges and duties as are levied upon American vessels in the Canadian ports. So, also, no duty is levied on the importation of peltries, nor on the goods of Indians passing the boundary line of the United States, unless these goods be in bales, or large packages unusual among Indians, which are not exempted from duty, being deemed articles of commerce. By an act, passed in March, 1799, British subjects, as well as Indians, were permitted to pass, either by land or inland navigation, both into and from the territories of the United States, and navigate all its lakes, rivers and waters; but British vessels, from the sea, are not admitted into the rivers of the United States beyond the highest ports of entry for foreign vessels.*

The fisheries, are another subject that has received the attention of Congress. The enterprise that has been directed to this important branch of commercial industry, has long rendered it a source of considerable profit to those who are engaged in it, as well as to the prosperity of the nation. In order to encourage the prosecution of this enterprise, a bounty has been granted on all pickled fish of the fisheries of the Uni-

* A law formerly existing, permitted a credit upon those duties, to be paid by importers on the following terms. Upon all goods, excepting woollens, the credit commenced at the time the vessel made her entry at the custom-house, and one-half was required to be paid in three, and the other half in six months. The duties on goods, in the whole or in part of wool, when not exceeding $200, were required to be paid in cash, upon the terms we have stated. *According to Mr. Clay's* compromise bill, all duties were required to be paid *in cash, after June 30th, 1842.*

ted States, exported from the country, of twenty cents a barrel, provided the fish thus exported, is cured with foreign salt. So, also, a bounty is is granted to the owner or agent of every vessel, which is employed four months of the fishing season, in the bank or cod fishery. These bounties are paid by the collector of the district, from which the fish are exported, or to which the vessel belongs. The bounties are, however, restricted to vessels, whose officers, and at least three-fourths of whose crews, are proved to be citizens of the United States.

By an act of Congress, that was passed during the session of 1797, certain vessels, termed *revenue cutters*, were authorized to be built, as aids to the collectors of the ports in the execution of the revenue laws. The officers of these vessels, are appointed by the president of the United States; and, being deemed officers of the customs, they are subject to the direction of the collectors of the revenue within the several districts. It is their duty to board all vessels that arrive within the United States, or within four leagues of the coast, if they are bound for the United States, to examine them, to receive the manifests, to secure them in a proper manner and to remain on board until they arrive at the place of destination. They are also required to make a weekly return, to the collector of the district in which they are placed, of all the vessels which they have boarded, and of all those facts proper to be known by the collector for the exercise of the duties of his office. They may also perform such other duties, for the collection of the revenue, as may be directed by the secretary of the treasury in conformity to the law. The revenue cutters, when ordered by the president of the United States, must co-operate with the navy; at which time they are under the direction of the secretary of the navy, their expenses being defrayed by the agents of the navy department. These vessels are known by a certain flag, composed of horizontal stripes, which, all whom they hail upon the sea, are bound to respect. In addition to the sailing vessels, which have heretofore been employed in the revenue service, there have been recently constructed a number of steamships for the same purpose.

The most important commercial agents of the United States, in foreign ports, are consuls; and, indeed, by the custom of all maritime nations, those officers are appointed for all the principal ports to which their commerce extends. Those which are appointed by the United States, are invested with certain privileges and duties, by virtue of their office, as they represent the commercial interests of their respective governments, in the places where they are stationed. They have the right to receive the protests and other declarations, of captains or other citizens of the United States, and of those foreigners as may choose to make them, relating to the personal interests of any citizens of the United States; and the copies of such acts, under the seal of the consulate, have the same authority as the originals would possess in a court of law. It is, moreover, their duty to take possession of the personal estate, left by any citizen of the United States, (excepting a seaman belonging to any vessel, who may die within their consulate, who leaves there no legal representative or person to take charge of his effects,) to adjust his affairs, and transmit the balance of his estate, if any be left, to the treasury of the United States for the benefit of the legal claimants. It is, moreover, the duty of the consul or vice consul, to notify the death of a citizen deceased, in one of the gazettes published in the consulate, and to give notice to

the secretary of state, in order that the fact may be notified in the state in which the deceased belongs, and to transmit to the secretary of state an inventory of the effects of the deceased. They must also take measures, for saving the vessels and cargoes stranded upon the coasts of their consulates, (if the master, owner or consignee, is not present,) and to deliver them to the owners. Persons owning goods, subject to an ad valorem duty, who live out of the United States, must make oath, before a consul, that the goods thus imported, are of the same price, at the place of manufacture, as they are charged in the invoice, and whether they are the manufacturers, in the whole or in part, or they cannot be entered at the custom-house. They must provide sustenance for the mariners of their own country, found destitute within their districts, and a passage home at the public expense; and when a seaman is discharged in a foreign port, the master must obtain the consent of the consul, in writing, under his official seal. The ship register, sea-letter and Mediterranean passport, must be deposited with an American consul, on an American vessel arriving in a foreign port, and they must be kept until the master produces a regular demand. There are also other duties devolving upon the consuls, growing out of their particular appointment or special treaty.*

We now direct our attention, to the consideration of those agents, who are usually employed in the commercial operations of our country. The principal agents of this sort, are factors, brokers, commercial agents, supercargoes and ship's husbands. A *factor*, is the individual residing abroad, who is usually employed in the purchase or sale of goods; while a *broker*, who unites in his person the office of a factor, is engaged most generally in the money transactions of merchants and masters of ships, relating to shipping. *Commercial agents*, are those whose duty it is made to settle the affairs of merchants or other persons, dying or failing, either at home or abroad; and their particular agency, for the faithful performance of which, they often give bonds, terminates, when the business has been performed. *Supercargoes* are persons employed, either by commercial companies or by private merchants, to take charge of the cargoes which they export to foreign countries, to sell them, and to purchase other cargoes, with which they return in the same ship. *Ship's husbands* are agents in our seaports, whose duty it is, to purchase ship stores for their voyages, to procure cargoes on freight, obtain insurance policies, receive the amount of freight, pay the captain or master what is his due, and make out accounts of these transactions for the owners of the ships, performing the same offices on land, as the steward of a ship while at sea. Each of these agents is bound to perform certain prescribed acts, and is invested with those obligations which lie within the province of their separate agencies.

In order to secure the safety of property, as well as the vessels that may be wrecked upon any part of our coast, there are certain statutory regulations, in the several states, providing for the custody of such wrecks or cargoes. These several statutory enactments, however, vary in the several states, but they all have one common object. A wise forecast has also been exercised, by the government of the several states, in the

* For a particular account of the custom-house laws, we would refer our readers to Blunt's Commercial Digest, to which we have been greatly indebted in preparing this article.

establishment of quarantine regulations. The liability of the numerous vessels, that are continually arriving in our own ports from various parts of the world, to introduce contagious or infectious disorders, has rendered it necessary to pass certain regulations requiring all ships to remain a prescribed period, at a distance from the port, until their condition can be ascertained and all causes of conveying disease removed. For that purpose, proper grounds are marked out, where all vessels subject to quarantine, are to remain anchored until they are permitted to enter the port.

In order to insure the safe navigation of ships into port, it is customary and necessary to employ pilots. The assistance of this valuable body of men, is frequently called in, where vessels are to be guided through intricate and unknown channels, near dangerous sand bars, or into roads or harbors. Under such circumstances, the masters of vessels, confiding in the skill and experience of individuals acquainted with such unknown passages, rather than in their own, entrust to them the guidance of their ships, until these intricate places have been passed. There are certain points where it is customary to employ pilots; and a failure to engage them, will, in case of damage of an insured ship, consequent upon this neglect, discharge the insurers from paying the amount of the damage. The duty of regulating the acts of pilots, and the circumstances of pilotage, falls within the province of Congress; but as the local details necessary to form a proper general pilot law, could not easily be known, that body has left the establishment of the pilot law, so far as the licensing of pilots and fixing the rates of pilotage are concerned, to the several states. Each of the states, therefore, now possesses its own pilot laws, those which have been passed since 1789, and before 1837, being recognized as valid. The regulations of the several states, respecting pilots and pilotage, however, prescribe the same general duties.

The welfare of that large body of men, who are from time to time, afloat upon the ocean, as passengers in vessels, has also been made the subject of national legislation. It is enacted by a law of Congress, passed on the 2d of March, 1819, that no master shall take on board his vessel, at any foreign port, or convey into the United States from any foreign port, or transport from the United States to any foreign port, more than two persons for every five tons of such vessel, under a penalty to the master, as well as to the owner, each, of the sum of one hundred and fifty dollars for each passenger thus taken on board; and if the number of such passengers exceed the said proportion by the number of twenty in the whole, every such vessel is forfeited to the United States. For the further security of those on shipboard, it is also provided, that every vessel bound from the United States to any port on the continent of Europe, must have on board sixty gallons of water, one hundred pounds of salted provisions, one gallon of vinegar and one hundred pounds of wholesome ship bread, for every passenger on board, over and above what each passenger has provided for himself, and in the same proportion for shorter voyages; and if the passengers on board a vessel, in which such provision has not been made, be put on short allowance, the master and owner of such vessel must pay to each passenger the sum of three dollars for every day that they have been kept on such short allowance. The master of every vessel, arriving in the United States from any foreign place, must also deliver to the collector, a list of the passengers on board his vessel, *their names, sex and occupations*, the countries to which they belong, and

those of which they design to become inhabitants. Returns of these must be made quarterly to the secretary of state, and statements of the same, are made by him to Congress during each session. There are also other laws, enacted by the states, requiring that reports be made to the municipal authorities, of all alien passengers entering the several ports, and also requiring security that these shall not be made a public charge; the last requisition, being, however, sometimes subject to commutation.

Besides these general laws for the protection of navigation, there are also certain particular commercial regulations that have been made in the principal seaports, regarding vessels entering their harbors. It is evident, that, from the large amount of shipping continually entering the ports of the United States, certain clearly defined and well established regulations have become necessary. It happens, accordingly, that those regulations have been enacted for the principal harbors of the country, and their direct influence has been, to promote security to lives and property, as well as safety to the shipping.

We have given a brief sketch of the commercial system of the United States, established for the protection of commerce in its various departments, designedly avoiding an exhibition of that vast body of complex rules, relating to insurance and the rights and duties of seamen, falling within the province of general maritime law. We have confined our remarks to the local and statutory law of the country, because that is the distinctive feature which marks our own policy as Americans. It may be remarked, that our commercial legislation has been, in the main, clear-sighted and judicious; yet it could hardly be expected, that a nation, whose commerce has grown up within a very recent period, should, at all times, possess the forecast and judgment of our own country, when its head shall have been frosted with the experience of a thousand years.

With the growth of our commerce, and a more accurate knowledge of the commercial systems of other nations, our own commercial policy will become more firmly fixed, and be established upon a more advantageous and solid basis. The intimate commercial relations that we have established with the principal nations of Europe, through the agency of steam-navigation, as well as the large body of our shipping ploughing every sea, render a liberal, yet fixed commercial policy, in every way desirable. The first step has already been taken by the government, in their causing to be embodied, the regulations of those nations with which we have intercourse, in an accessible form, and in the collation of statistical facts, regarding the agricultural, mineral and manufactured productions of the country, in order that we may know what products we require from abroad, and what surplus we produce for export to other countries. The commerce of the United States, has ever been a source of individual wealth, as well as of national revenue. It will, doubtless, in future time, as it has before done, call into action a considerable portion of our most vigorous enterprise, as well as the most upright and elevated character. To insure its successful prosecution, we require only equitable laws and an enlightened policy.

Art. VI.—COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES WITH CHINA.*

The new commercial relations, that seem to be opening between our own government and the empire of China, perhaps warrant us in devoting a brief space to the consideration of the progress of our commerce with that country. Whatever might have been the grounds of the recent attack, by the British, upon their frontiers, (and we certainly shall not here discuss the question,) the result, doubtless, has been to induce, on their part, a more amicable and liberal commercial intercourse with foreign nations, and it is reasonable to presume that our own will share a portion of these opening advantages.

The commerce of our country with China, although not of very long standing, has still been a source of great profit to individuals engaged in the China trade. That singular people, heretofore isolated in their habits as a nation, and opposing around their entire frontier an almost impassable barrier to the ingress of strangers, has, for a long period, it is well known, carried on a large amount of commerce with the principal commercial nations of Europe, especially with the British empire; but this trade has been restricted to the frontier, and has been prosecuted without the walls of cities. Much the larger amount of foreign tonnage has, indeed, at all times, been moored without the harbor of Canton, her principal seaport. Containing a most dense population, scattered over her territory, remarkable for their industrious habits, China has been enabled to export abroad a large amount of the products of its own labor, by which, broad streams of wealth have been poured into various portions of that empire.

The principal exports to China from our own country, within the last few years, it is, perhaps, well known, have consisted of white and printed cottons, the most prominent article of export, as well as ginsing, skins and furs, and various other commercial products of minor value. The import trade with the Chinese empire, has been comprized mainly, of silks, teas, Nankeens, Chinaware and other articles less in amount. The remarkable industry of the population of that empire, will doubtless increase the number of the various articles of the exports of the country, as well as their aggregate quantity.

Since the principal commercial depot of the empire of China, is the city of Canton, we would devote a brief space to the consideration of its commerce. Notwithstanding the recent attack of the British navy upon the empire, tending to interrupt its ordinary pursuits, it appears from documents before us, that, in 1843, the entries into the port of Canton were 430 ships, with 178,478 tons, and that the "sailings" were 364 ships, with 149,744 tons. The principal countries carrying on commerce with Canton, at that time, were Great Britain, which had 131 ships, with 56,943 tons, while other states in Europe, had in the port 14 ships, with 3,262 tons. There were at that time, 37 ships belonging to the United States, with an aggregate of 17,342 tons; and other states in America, had 15 ships, with an aggregate of 5,539 tons There was also one ship from Africa, carrying on commerce with that country. In Asia, 366 ships, belonging to British India, were engaged in the Canton trade,

* For an elaborate account of the commerce of China, see Merchants' Magazine for *December, 1840, Vol. III., No. 6*, pp. 465 to 481.

which possessed an aggregate of 164,356 tons; Spanish India had 191 ships, with a tonnage of 34,600; Dutch India had 31 ships, with a tonnage of 9,434; and Portuguese India, 16 ships, with a tonnage of 2,361. There were 2 ships, belonging to Siam, in the Canton trade; 41, belonging to northern China; and 35 ships of Oceanica, New Zealand and the Sandwich Isles, with an aggregate of 13,216 tons. We have thus given a condensed statement, of the shipping engaged in the Canton trade, for the purpose of exhibiting the general character of the foreign commerce of China, from its most prominent port.

In order to exhibit the progress of the commerce of the United States with China, for a series of years, we subjoin the following tables showing the direct China trade, from the year 1821 to 1842, a period of twenty-one years:—

VALUE OF EXPORTS FROM THE UNITED STATES TO CHINA DIRECT; AND IMPORTS FROM CHINA.

Years.	Dom. Produce, &c.	Foreign merchandise, &c.	Tot. Exports.	Imports.
1821,.....	$388,535	$3,902,025	$4,290,560	$3,111,951
1822,.....	439,230	5,506,138	5,935,368	5,212,536
1823,.....	288,375	4,347,686	4,636.061	5,511,425
1824,.....	330,466	4,970,705	5,301,171	5,568,502
1825,.....	160,059	5,410,456	5,575,515	7,533,115
1826,.....	242,451	2,324,093	2,466,644	7,422,186
1827,.....	290,962	3,573,543	3,864,405	3,617,183
1828,.....	230,385	1,252,417	1,482,802	5,339,108
1829,.....	260,759	1,094,103	1,354,862	4,680,847
1830,.....	156,290	585,903	742,193	3,878,141
1831,.....	244,790	1,048,045	1,290,835	3,083,205
1832,.....	336,162	924,360	1,580,522	5,344,907
1833,.....	537,774	895,985	1,433,759	7,541,570
1834,.....	255,756	754,727	1,010,483	7,892,327
1835,.....	335,368	1,532,712	1,868,580	5,987,187
1836,.....	341,563	852,701	1,194,264	7,324,816
1837,.....	318,973	311,618	600,594	8,965,337
1838,.....	655,581	961,021	1,516,602	4,764,536
1839,.....	430,464	1,103,137	1,533,601	3,678,509
1840,.....	409,186	540,780	1,006,966	6,640,829
1841,.....	715,322	485,494	1,200,816	3,095,388

The chief articles of import and export, in these years, were as follows:—

	Exports to China—Cottons.			Imports from China.	
Years.	Printed.	White.	Twist.	Nankeens.	Silks.
1821,.....	.....	.....	.....	$298,079	$1,317,846
1822,.....	.....	.....	.....	758,371	2,389,210
1823,.....	.....	.....	.....	595,681	3,122,186
1824,.....	.....	.....	.....	177,015	2,430,856
1825,.....	.....	.....	.....	310,548	3,060,148
1826,.....	$154	$14,777	.....	274,970	2,746,754
1827,.....	.....	9,388	.....	172,668	1,333,227
1828,.....	.....	10,981	.....	304.674	2,234,190
1829,.....	.....	25,943	$85	452,873	1,616,693
1830,.....	.....	52,080	3,764	176,739	971,670
1831,.....	.....	49,256	.....	87,184	1,306,322
1832,.....	.....	86,580	.....	95,972	2,027,503
1833,.....	64,881	127,813	15,941	30,339	1,363,082
1834,.....	.....	146,881	2,378	46,845	1,010,158
1835,.....	2,552	170,175	.....	6,433	927,017
1836,.....	15,351	70,395	.....	28,348	1,297,770
1837,.....	11,997	189,255	2,514	35,990	2,104,981
1838,.....	11,280	507,560	13,257	27,049	965,572
1839,.....	6,360	*255,975*	.....	2,379	978,183
1840,.....	.....	*361,995*	14,478	1,100	779,629
1841,.....	.....	*357,332*	14,264	217	285,77[illegible]

It is quite probable, that the new relations of the Chinese empire with foreign countries, may so change the habits of the people, as to call for an additional amount of importations, as well as an additional variety to the articles imported. That a very marked change will be produced, by the opening of the Chinese empire to foreign commerce, there is but little doubt. Heretofore, our exports have been restricted to those articles, required by a people, who have scarcely advanced beyond the first stages of civilization, and they have been inconsiderable in amount. Subjoined, is a table, showing the various subjects of export to China, from our own country, in 1842, as well as the imports during the same period:—

EXPORTS TO THE UNITED STATES FROM CHINA, IN 1842.

Articles.	Value.	Articles.	Value.
Candles,	$1,708	Cotton,	$67,695
Masts and spars,	200	Furniture,	764
Naval stores,	272	Hats,	2,830
Skins and furs,	18,000	Saddlery,	260
Ginseng,	63,000	Porter, ale, and cider,	580
Beef,	2,847	Candles and soap,	4,476
Pork, bacon, &c.,	1,789	Lead,	163,642
Butter and cheese,	306	Iron,	524
Tobacco,	2,518	" manufactured,	12,400
Turpentine,	283	Drugs,	596
Cordage,	882	Twist, yarn, &c.,	18,255
Copper,	2,730	Presses and types,	783
Cotton manufactures,	337,470	Gold and coin,	18,000
Fire engines,	1,179		
Books and maps,	589	Total value of exports for the year,	$737,509
Other manufactures,	1,548	In American vessels,	703,506
Flour,	1,612	In foreign vessels,	34,203
Ship bread,	5,154		

IMPORTS INTO THE UNITED STATES FROM CHINA, IN 1842.

Articles.	Value.
Teas,	$4,367,101
Coffee,	1,968
All other articles,	4,421,666
Total value of imports,	$8,790,735

It will, perhaps, be somewhat interesting, to notice briefly, the relative importance of the British and American trade, at Canton, of late years. For this purpose, we subjoin a statement, exhibiting the imported and exported values, in British and American ships, which are cited from documents made up from the declarations of the "linguists." We are induced to add this table, because it is calculated to show the relative importance of the trade of the two nations, that are destined to become the most prominent rivals in the Chinese ports, as well as the decrease of the trade during the late disturbances. The various amounts are calculated in pounds sterling. The aggregate value of imports and exports, at Canton, were, in round numbers sterling, in

1837, about	£17,600,000	1841, val. of Brit. exports,	2,849,000
1841, only	9,200,000	1837, val. of Am. imp., about	1,612,000
1827, val. of Brit. imp., about	7,540,000	" " exp.,	1,734,000
" " exp.,	6,516,000	1841, " imp.,	440,000
1841, " imp.,	4,600,000	" " exp.,	1,210,000

We have it, moreover, from an authoritative source, that the British *trade to* China has, very recently, been much increased, and that eighty

vessels, with full cargoes, have left the London docks since the month of March last, for the port of Canton.

We have thus exhibited, in a brief form, the most prominent features of our commerce with China, which, from the recent transactions in that empire, are destined to present some of the most interesting relations from the peculiar circumstances of the nation. The character of that people is but partially known, and the influence of commerce will doubtless be effective in opening to light its internal condition. It is reasonable to suppose, that favorable treaties may be negotiated by our own government, with the empire of China, through the agency of the diplomatic representative of the United States who is now there resident. No difficulties have heretofore existed between us. There are valuable commercial staples of China, used to a considerable extent in our market; and, on our part, we produce a large amount of those very products, especially cotton goods, that are required by its dense population. The diplomatic agent of this government, Mr. Cushing, it is understood, has advanced to Pekin; and those who are more especially interested in the subject, are awaiting with anxiety the returns that he may make of a successful negotiation. It appears from tables reported for the public journals, that, in 1843, there were twenty-four arrivals in the more northern ports of the United States, from Canton, and thirty-two clearances during the same period. With the more firm establishment of our commercial relations with the Chinese empire, there is no doubt that the number will be greatly increased, and that a new and profitable channel of intercourse will be opened with that extraordinary people.

Art. VII.—MERCANTILE BIOGRAPHY.

MEMOIR OF JACOB LORILLARD.*

Jacob Lorillard, who, on his father's side, was of French, and on his mother's, of German descent, was born in the city of New York, in 1774. He appears to have commenced life without the advantages even of an ordinary education, and to have been, in a great measure, self-taught and self-made; but at a very early period he exhibited that energy of character and firmness of purpose which marked every stage of his subsequent course, and struggled manfully with the difficulties which beset his path. At the usual age, he was indentured as an apprentice to the business in which the greater part of his life was spent. In a situation so unfavorable to the improvement of his mind, he nevertheless attempted it, and after the laborious occupations of the day, instead of seeking recreation and repose, he passed his evenings in the patient study of the very elements of knowledge which are usually learned in childhood. But when he had, in some degree, supplied the deficiencies of his imperfect education, and acquired what was essential for the practical purposes of his calling in life, he was not satisfied with this measure of improve-

* The present beautiful tribute to the memory of a good man, from the pen of the Rev. William Berrian, D. D., was originally published in the Churchman. It is now published, with a few slight alterations, as one of our series of mercantile biographies.—[Ed. Merchants' Magazine.]

ment. He mastered, in the same way, the French language, as he afterwards did the German, endeared to him, perhaps, from the circumstance of his descent, and thus obtained a better acquaintance with the principles of his own. His active and aspiring mind still aimed at something higher, and the way in which he gratified his love of general reading, was at once a proof of his industry and ambition. At the close of his wearisome days, he would engage at night in a fresh occupation at the establishment of his brothers, for which he received a suitable, though trifling compensation; and when these hard-earned gains had sufficiently accumulated, they were uniformly spent in the purchase of books, which, procured with so much difficulty, were read with profit and delight. Many of these are still in the possession of the family, and, as memorials of his patient industry and enlarged and liberal views, may well be regarded with pleasure and pride.

The modesty of his nature, and the diffidence he felt in these private acquisitions, prevented even many of his friends from knowing the extent to which his reading was carried. But it is said to have been a passion with him, and that, after the labors of the day, or the fatigues of a journey, he was never so weary as not to find it a recreation and solace; and in order to indulge it with an entire freedom from interruption and care, it was one of his favorite plans to withdraw from business as soon as he should have obtained a moderate competency, and to pass the remainder of his days in rural retirement. But his relations with the world, which had branched out in so many directions, and the restless activity of his mind, prevented the accomplishment of this scheme till his life itself was drawing to a close, and even then this day-dream was dissolved: for perplexities and cares broke in upon his repose, and left him no prospect of rest but that which remaineth to the people of God.

He entered upon business with a capital of a thousand dollars, increased by a loan from his brothers of double that amount, and from the skill, the foresight and the diligence, with which it was conducted, and from some adventitious advantages, his own part of it was eventually multiplied more than a thousand-fold. The foundation of his prosperity, was undoubtedly laid in his moral worth. His untiring industry, his uniform caution and constant vigilance, his purity of mind, which influenced all his aversions and desires, his thoughts and actions, his incorruptible integrity, which was never impeached nor questioned through the whole course of his life, his firmness and perseverance in carrying through the schemes which he had prudently devised and carefully matured—all these things were calculated to inspire a general confidence in him, in the minds of men, and to further his welfare and success.

But there was one other cause of his wealth, to which he himself occasionally referred. It was a favorite remark of his, and well worthy of note, that his prosperity arose from not having made haste to be rich. Simple in all his tastes and habits, well regulated in his affections and appetites, free from vanity, ostentation and pride, he had no extravagant desires either to urge him on in the eager pursuit of wealth, or to make him squander, in prodigality, the fruits of iniquity and fraud. Instead, therefore, of unduly extending his business, and in haste to enrich himself, being careless about the interests and claims of others; instead of running out into wild and visionary schemes, which are so tempting to the cupidity of men, and staking the laborious acquisitions of a life upon the

chances of a day, he was contented to follow the prudent methods of better times, to avoid unnecessary anxiety for the morrow, to keep innocency, and take heed to the thing that is right in regard to his neighbor, and to insure himself peace at the last. Whenever, therefore, the profits of his business were not needed for the enlargement of his capital, he was in the habit of investing them in real estate, selected very often in obscure and retired places, which would be unattractive to the speculator, and with greater regard to the security of the property than the immediate prospect of gain. But, in most cases, this very moderation and prudence turned to a better account than the grasping calculations of avarice itself—his own possessions increasing in value, securely and steadily, while those of others were often swept away by their extravagance and folly.

The sagacity, foresight and diligence, with which he managed his affairs, and the fair and honorable means by which he acquired his riches, would have been less worthy of admiration, had they not also been accompanied by liberal views and benevolent designs. His wealth, his influence and talents, were all directed, in an eminent degree, to the good of men and the glory of God. He had a high sense of his stewardship, and the kind impulses of his heart urged him on to the cheerful performance of his duty.

He took a particular delight in countenancing, in helping and advising young men of merit in the outset of life. He was quick in penetrating into the character of those around him, and nice in his observation of their course; and when, from their industry, their prudence and capacity, he saw fit to select them for the exercise of his favor, he was inflexible in his attachment to them, and unfailing in his kindness. The details, received by the writer of this sketch, from one who loved him as a friend, and revered him as a father, and whose heart was poured out like water, on the news of his death, represented him in a light so amiable, so confiding, so overflowing in generosity and kindness, that no one could hear them without admiration and emotion. And this, it was remarked, was only an instance of that favor and goodness of which many besides him had been partakers.

Another manifestation of the exercise of his benevolent feelings towards young beginners, who were needy and friendless, was peculiarly interesting. When a director of that institution, of which he was twice the president, he would frequently take a parcel of the small notes which were offered for discount by poor mechanics, who were obscure and unknown, and which, therefore, for the most part, would have been rejected, and make diligent inquiry, in person, as to their character and standing; and if he found that, with a proper regard to the interests of the bank, he could commend them to favor and confidence, he felt that he was abundantly rewarded for all his pains.

On one occasion, a person whose note had been refused where it was offered for discount, and who, it appears, had no peculiar claims on his kindness and influence, though possessing his confidence, called on him for a line of recommendation, which would be sure to procure the desired accommodation. He at once, as it seemed, complied with the desired request; instead of being a line of recommendation, however, it was afterwards discovered to be a note of Mr. Lorillard for the amount which was needed. The person immediately returned, and pointed out the mis-

take; never mind, said Mr. Lorillard, if they will not discount your note, see whether they will not mine.

Another instance is related of his kind consideration for the interests of others. He was appointed an executor to an estate in which the widow had a life-interest, but where each of the children was to receive a thousand dollars on coming to age. When, in the first case, this period had arrived, one of the sons called on him for the amount of this bequest; and what, he said, do you wish to do with it? To purchase stock with it in a particular bank. At what is it now selling? A hundred and ten. Have you any objections to leave the money with me on interest till the 1st of May, and then I will let you have the stock at the same rate? In the meantime, it fell, as he anticipated, to eighty-four. When this change took place, the young man was greatly depressed. He called at the time appointed to fulfil the engagement. The stock is ready for you, Mr. Lorillard playfully remarked; however, if you prefer it, I will release you from the contract, and the money may remain where it is. It may easily be conceived that the young man left him grateful and rejoicing.

But there is one noble act of generosity and kindness, which stands out so prominently, and is at the same time so creditable both to the agent and object, that it is hoped the notice of it will not be deemed a violation of delicacy. One who had been the companion of his youth, and the friend of his age, and who, like him, had been blessed with prosperity and honor, was suddenly overtaken by calamity and threatened with ruin. When he received the news, he was affected even to tears. This shall not be, said he, if I can sustain him, I will mortgage my property first; and he did so. He immediately assumed all the debts of his friend to a particular institution, which were heavy. When creditors, knowing the intimacy which subsisted between them, crowded around him to ascertain the truth or falsehood of the rumored failure, he simply replied, "Bring me the notes which are due to you, and on the usual guarantee I will pay them." He did do it, to a large amount; and by the aid which he rendered, and the confidence he inspired, he not only sustained and re-established his friend, but the whole profits of the operation for the risk which he incurred were entirely devoted to charity.

These are not merely a few solitary instances of kindness scattered throughout a long tract of time, but an illustration of the habits of his life. There are scarcely any of that numerous class, who were engaged in the same business with him, who have not some personal and grateful recollection of it, a striking proof of which, is to be found in a circumstance that occurred when he partially withdrew from the active duties of life, and retired to his retreat in the neighborhood of the city. The whole fraternity spontaneously met to express, in the deepest and most heartfelt manner, their sense of his kindness and worth, and to present to him a beautiful memorial of their attachment and respect.

His benevolence, was not, however, confined to a narrow channel, but was as expansive as the misery and want which cried to him for aid. What is known of it, excites admiration; but there is reason to believe that more of it is hidden, except from the objects of his bounty and the all-seeing eye of God. The silence which was imposed by his wishes, on the lips of many, during his life, has been broken since his death. His acts of charity to the sick, the needy and the stranger, were exer*cised da ly and hourly* at his home, and amidst the engagements of busi-

ness, in a spirit of kindness which was never chilled, and with a patience that was more remarkable than his alms. But he did not merely wait for the appeals of the distressed to touch his feelings, but from the considerate kindness of his own heart, often committed large sums to a confidential agent, with an injunction that his name should be concealed, to be distributed among those persons, whose office, it was, to minister to the wants of the hungry and naked. In the way of loans to students, who were in need of all things—to clergymen, who were straitened in their means—to kinsmen and friends, whose misfortunes and necessities called for relief, his benevolence took a wider range: for, in many instances, he he never intended to reclaim them, and in others, he was aware that there was no reasonable prospect they could ever be repaid. With respect to servants, he considered that he held a kind of paternal relation to them; and when they had served him long and faithfully, he was in the habit, on their leaving him, of giving them an outfit, and following them through life with his countenance and favor.

In addition to the sums which were dispensed by him in the ever-flowing stream of his bounty, it was a settled rule with him, upon which he acted through life, to devote all the monies which came to him, either in a way that was unexpected, or from debts which had been considered as lost, to pious and charitable purposes. He was a little peculiar and fanciful in some of his benevolent feelings and habits. The scarfs which he received in attending funerals, were always regarded as the perquisite of the poor; and he was thought, by many, to be too free and undiscriminating in the exercise of his bounty, for "even his failings leaned to virtue's side." On one occasion, in the depth of winter, a woman whom he had often relieved, called upon him for a little assistance to procure some wood. Having some doubts of her worthiness, he said that he would inquire about her, and dismissed her without any relief. A short time after, he left his office in company with a gentleman who had been present at the interview, and observing a cartman with a load of wood on his cart, he asked the price of it, and directed him to take it to a certain street and number, which was the place where the disappointed petitioner resided. His companion remarked, with some surprise, "Did you not say that you intended to make some inquiry about her?" "While I should have been inquiring about the matter, the poor woman might have frozen to death." Indeed, the benignity of his countenance, the kindness of his manner, and the ease and cheerfulness with which he rendered assistance, gave additional grace to his acts of charity.

But there is one important circumstance, in reference to this point, which ought not to pass unnoticed. The plainness and simplicity of his habits, in dress, in furniture and his whole mode of living—his separation from the pomps and vanities of the world, and his entire freedom from all ostentatious and expensive tastes, left him an ample fund for the free and liberal indulgence of those benevolent feelings which God had inspired, thus furnishing a happy exemplification of those beautiful lines:—

> "For what his charity impairs,
> He saves by prudence in affairs."

The union of so many excellences of character, with strong natural powers and much acquired knowledge, will easily account for the great consideration and influence *which he obtained* in society. Such was the

confidence, both in his integrity and judgment, that he was absolutely oppressed by the weight of his public and private trusts. He was connected with a great number of mercantile, literary, benevolent and religious institutions in all of which he was active and useful, and in some enjoyed an undisputed pre-eminence. He was a member of the New York Lyceum and Horticultural Society, a trustee of the General Theological Seminary, a warden of St. Andrew's Church, Harlaem, a vestryman of Trinity Church, New York, president of the German Society, the Mechanics' Society and the Mechanics' Bank. To the interests of the last institution, he applied the whole energies of his mind, and with so much effect, as to have twice delivered it from serious embarrassments, if not from greater evils; but, alas! it is to be feared, at the expense of health and the abridgment of his days.

But the highest distinction of this excellent man, was his deep and unaffected piety. At the early age of seventeen years, he consecrated at the altar, his body and soul to the service of God; and neither the engagements of business, nor the temptations of prosperity, ever diverted him from it, but he lived and died in the Lord. In his personal character, as well as in the purity and benevolence of his life, he was a faithful follower of his meek and lowly Master. In the bosom of his family, he was an instructer, example and guide. Each morning and evening, all were gathered around him in family prayer; and on the Lord's day, he uniformly devoted a portion of it to the religious instruction of his children by a simple and familiar exposition of the scriptures.

It may well be supposed, that such a pure and well-spent life would have a serene and peaceful close. When he perceived that his death was approaching, which he had not expected until it was near at hand, there was no agitation nor fear, but he was calm, submissive and resigned. Like the patriarch of old, he called his children around him, and, beginning with the youngest, he gave, in the most affecting and impressive manner, to each one of them, according to their respective dispositions, characters and habits, the admonition, counsel or encouragement, which was appropriate to the case; and shortly after, with a hope full of immortality, he sank away easily and gently, and slept in the Lord.

The old friends and neighbors, with whom he had been so long associated in business, immediately met together to express their deep and unaffected grief at his loss, and to testify their profound respect for his memory, and they gave a touching instance of it, by resolving forthwith, in a body, to close their offices and stores. In this feeling, in a greater or less degree, thousands participated: "Blessed are the dead who die in the Lord, for their works do follow them."

Art. VIII.—THE GOLD MINES OF NORTH CAROLINA.

The first mine discovered in North Carolina was Reid's, in the southeast part of Cabarrus county, in 1801 or 1802. Parker's mine, in Montgomery county, (which adjoins Cabarrus,) was discovered in 1815, on the same stream, (Meadow creek.) In 1818, Dunn's mine was discovered in Mecklenburg, about eight miles northwest of Charlotte. The mines Burke county were discovered in 1828. From these periods, down to the

present time, new mines, of more or less value, have been discovered. These mines are of two kinds, viz: 1. alluvial deposites, or surface mines; and 2. vein mines. The first class occupied the early attention of miners, and is still extensively carried on in Burke, Rutherford and other auriferous regions of the western part of North Carolina. The precious metal of these mines, is obtained by washing among the sand, or pebbles of quartz, and is a simple process. The vein mines, constitute, principally, the mines in the vicinity of Charlotte, where the gold is found by excavating, and is not distinguishable by the eye, in the ore. In the early workings of these mines, the gold was found in small pieces, from the size of a pennyweight down to particles of extreme minuteness. In 1803, at Reid's mine, a negro found one lump that weighed twenty-eight pounds, avoirdupois. This was worth $8,000. Jameson, in his "Mineralogy," says, the largest piece of gold found in Europe only weighed twenty-two ounces. This was found at Micklow, in Ireland. Professor Olmsted, now of Yale College, but formerly a professor of chemistry and mineralogy, in the University of North Carolina, states, that Mr. Reid found at his mine a mass of white flint (quartz) having a projecting point of gold of the size of a pins's head. On breaking it open, a brilliant display of green and yellow colors was presented, which was described as being exceedingly beautiful. The gold weighed twelve pennyweights. We regret that these earlier and splendid specimens of the mineral wealth of the county, were carried abroad to decorate the museums and cabinets of other nations. They should have found a safe depository at home. We rejoice, however, to know, that our government now affords, at the mother mint, in Philadelphia, a proper deposit for them; and interest, if not patriotism, will, we trust, dictate to those in the region of the gold mines, who may hereafter find these specimens, not to destroy them. The amount of gold coined at Philadelphia, from North Carolina, up to 1843, was $2,939,737. The amount coined at the branch, in Charlotte, North Carolina, from the establishment of the mint, in 1838, to 1843, was $953,035. One merchant in North Carolina, states, that his purchases of gold, from 1828 to 1839, was nearly $300,000, as copied from his bullion accounts; and three-fourths of it went to New York, and was there assayed and sold. Another states, that his purchases, since 1828, have averaged $6,000 per annum; and that he carried nearly all to New York, and from thence it was sent to Europe. The reason assigned by these gentlemen, for carrying their gold to New York, was, that the assayers in New York gave an additional value, above the mint, for the purposes of commerce. The addition of the premium, probably.

In 1830, in a report to the legislature of North Carolina, it is stated, that the product of the mines, in that year, was $500,000. This statement was probably correct at the time, as we find, by the official report, that the mint at Philadelphia coined from the bullion of North Carolina, in 1832, $458,000; in 1833, $475,000; and, in 1834, $380,000. Colonel J. T. Avery, in 1840, in a letter to Mr. Wheeler, of the mint in Charlotte, estimates the total product of Burke and Rutherford, alone, to be $6,000,000; while, he adds, "Mr. Forney and others, who lived among the mines, estimated the gross amount at $12,000,000." This is doubtless, too high; and the estimate of Mr. Avery is probably nearer the truth. The products of the mines have been gradually diminishing since 1835, when the high price *of cotton* drew off the greater portion of the

force to the southwest. Mr. Wheeler, the gentleman before alluded to, estimates the products of the mines, in North Carolina, at $10,000,000 since their discovery; and their annual product, up to 1840, at $400,000.

It is not generally known, we believe, in the eastern states, that there is a private manufactory of coin in North Carolina. We have seen some of the pieces, struck at the mint of a Mr. Bechtler, of Rutherford, North Carolina, who has coined a large portion of the gold produced in the counties of Burke and Rutherford. Mr. Bechtler states, that from January, 1831, to February, 1840, he coined $2,241,840 50; and fluxed, (or melted in bars,) 1,729,998 pennyweights. Much of this bullion may have been coined at Philadelphia; but as it answered the purposes of trade, at the south, and the community having a just confidence in the purity of the metal, much of it is carried by travellers, emigrants, traders and others, into Kentucky, Tennessee and elsewhere, that probably never found its way to the United States mint. Mr. John K. Wheeler, the superintendent of the United States branch mint, at Charlotte, North Carolina, says, but little of it has been recoined at that mint, not over $500. Much of it is believed to be still extant among the farmers, not only in Tennessee and Kentucky, but North Carolina, laid up, with prudent foresight, for future use.

The following statement, as to Bechtler's coinage, is extracted from his books, and may therefore be relied on as correct:—

	Coined.	*Fluxed.*
From Jan., 1831, to Dec., 1834,	$109,732 50	395,804 dwts.
" Dec., 1834, to Dec., 1835,	695,896 00	711,583 "
" Dec., 1835, to Aug., 1836,	471,322 50	397,410 "
" Aug., 1836, to May, 1838,	770,239 50	201,141 "
" May, 1838, to Feb., 1840,	194,560 00	24,060 "
	$2,241,840 50	1,729,998 "

This, including a period of nine years, would give an average of $250,000 a year, coined. If, to the coinage, is added the amount of bullion fluxed, or melted by him, (1,730,000 pennyweights, at eighty cents per pennyweight, which is its average assay here, equal to $1,384,000,) it would show, that there passed through his hands alone, within this period, $3,625,840 of gold bullion, the products of the mines of that region, which would show an average of more than $400,000 annually.

Mr. Wheeler gives the following tables, as the data, upon which the opinion, we quoted above, is founded, "that the total amount of gold bullion found in the gold region of North Carolina, from the discovery of the mines, amounts to $10,000,000; and the annual product, up to 1840, at $400,000."

Coined at the United States mints, to 31st Dec., 1839,..	$3,000,000
Amount of bullion passed through Mr. Bechtler's hands,.	3,625,000
Bullion sold to manufacturers, sent to Europe, carried in bars to the west, &c., &c.,.....	3,375,000
	$10,000,000

Data upon which the opinion is founded, "that the annual product of *the mines, at this* time, is $400,000:"

Coined in 1839, at Charlotte branch mint,.....	$162,767 50
" " Philadelphia, (estimated,).....	50,000 00
" " Bechtler's, estimated from his books,	150,000 00
Bullion sold to manufacturers, sent to Europe, carried west, &c., &c.,.....	37,232 50
	$400,000 00

Many of the mines of North Carolina, in their most productive state, belonged to foreigners, or were leased by them; the agents or managers, were also foreigners, and the capital was from abroad. The agents, then, often made prompt returns, by remitting the bullion direct to Europe. This was the case with the Chevalier Revifinoli.

Mr. Rothe, a miner and mineralogist, from Saxony, in some notes on the gold mines of North Carolina, published in Silliman's Journal, states, that "veins of two feet in thickness, in other mining countries, have been followed 2,000 feet deep with little or no variation." He states, that the veins in these mines are from two to four feet in thickness; and, after a careful examination, he concludes that these ores will compare with any in Europe, and richer than those in Brazil. The greatest depth that any shaft had been sunk in these mines, to 1840, was 175 feet, (the Charlotte mine;) the Capps mine to 163 feet.

Art. IX.—ANNALS OF AMERICAN COMMERCE.*

NUMBER I.

1609. *Voyage of Hudson.*—Henry Hudson, an Englishman, in the service of the Dutch, left Texel in the beginning of this year, with a design of penetrating to the East Indies by sailing a northwest course. Having attempted, in vain, he followed the track which the Cabots had marked for him above a century before. He sailed into the river Manhattan, and departed in October for England. The Dutch sent ships, the next year, to open a trade with the natives.

1616. *Tobacco*, was about this time, first cultivated by the English in Virginia.

Ships sent to New England.—Four ships sailed from London, and four from Plymouth, (England,) to New England, whence they carried great quantities of fish and oil, which were sold advantageously in Spain and the Canary islands.

1618. *Virginia Exports.*—The only commodities exported from Virginia, at this time, were tobacco and sassafras; the labor of the planter was diminished, and the agricultural interest advanced, by the introduction of the plough.

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* In the compilation of these Annals of American Commerce, we have consulted only the best and most authoritative sources, so numerous, that we have thought best to omit them altogether, as they would only serve to encumber our pages with a repetition of names and titles, and occupy almost as much space as the facts selected for publication, which embrace brief notices of almost everything to be found touching the history and progress of trade and commerce, in this country, during its colonial dependence on Great Britain, and since the establishment of a republican form of government.—[Ed. Merchants' Magazine.]

1619. *Tobacco.*—King James prohibited the sale of tobacco, in gross or retail, either in England or Ireland, until the custom should be paid and the royal seal affixed. Twenty thousand pounds of tobacco were exported this year, from Virginia to England, the whole crop of the preceding year.

1621. *Parliamentary Acts respecting Tobacco.*—The English parliament resolved, "that all foreign tobacco shall be barred, but that of Virginia, or any of the king's dominions, shall not be held foreign." A bill, for the restraint of the inordinate use of tobacco, was soon after brought in, which, after various amendments, passed in May. Its requisitions are very remarkable. No tobacco was to be imported after the 1st of October, 1621, but from Virginia and the Somers isles, and, after that day, none was to be planted in England. There was to be paid to the king, for custom, sixpence a pound, in consideration of the loss he might sustain in his revenue. None was to be sold by the merchant for more than eight shillings the pound, but they who should sell tobacco by the pipe, might make the most they could. This is the first instance, which occurs, of the modern policy of promoting the importation of the colonies in preference to the production of foreign nations.

1622. *Wine and Tobacco.*—The tobacco exported from Virginia to England, on an average, for seven years previous to 1622, was 142,085 pounds a year. Wine, made in Virginia, and a specimen of it sent to England.

Fishery.—Thirty-five ships sailed this year from the west of England, and two from London, to fish on the New England coasts, and made profitable voyages.

Restraint on the Trade to New England.—The Plymouth company having complained to King James of the encroachments and injuries of interlopers on their American commerce and possessions, and applied to him for relief, the king issued a proclamation, commanding that none should frequent the coasts of New England, but the adventurers and planters, or traffic with the Indians, otherwise than by the license of the council of Plymouth. "This remarkable edict," says Chalmers, "far from proving beneficial to the company, really brought on its dissolution."

1624. *Fishing.*—About fifty English ships, came in the spring of this year, to fish on the coasts of New England.

1626. *Newfoundland Fishery.*—The coast of Newfoundland, for most of the late years, was frequented by two hundred and fifty sail of English vessels, estimated at 15,000 tons, employing 5,000 persons, and an annual profit of about £135,000 sterling.

1627. *Trade of Plymouth Colony.*—The governor and others, hired the trade of the colony for six years; and for this privilege, together with the shallop and the pinnace built at Monamet, undertook to pay £1,800 and all other debts of the planters; to bring over to them £50 a year, in hoes, shoes, and sell them for corn at six shillings a bushel; and, at the end of the term, return the trade to the colony.

1628. *Dutch Trade with Plymouth.*—A Dutch bark, from Manhattan, arrived at Plymouth. The people of Plymouth bought various goods. After this commencement of trade, the Dutch often sent goods to the same place, and a traffic was continued for several years. The Plymouth colonists, sold much tobacco for linens, stuffs and other articles, and derived

great advantage from this commerce until the Virginians found out the Dutch colony.

1631. *Corn made a Legal Tender.*—In Massachusetts colony, the court of assistants ordered, that corn should pass for payment of all debts at the usual rate for which it was sold, unless money or bearer were expressly named.

1633. *Trade in Connecticut.*—Several vessels went into the Connecticut river, in the course of the year, to trade.

1639. *Act to Encourage the Fishery.*—The legislature of Massachusetts passed an act, to free from all duties and public taxes, all estates employed in catching, making or transporting fish.

1641. *Trading House at Narraganset.*—Richard Smith purchased of the sachems, a tract of land in the Narraganset country, remote from the English settlements, erected a house of trade, and gave full entertainment to all travellers.

1642. *Trading House at the Delaware.*—The people of New Haven, intending to make a plantation at Delaware, sent agents, who purchased of the natives several tracts of land on both sides of Delaware bay or river, and erected a trading house. Kreft, the Dutch governor at New Netherlands, without any legal protest or warning, sent armed men to the Delaware, who burned the trading house and seized the goods.

Iroquois Trade with the Dutch.—The Iroquois entered into a considerable commerce with the Dutch, at New Netherlands, to whom they disposed of their peltry, and who, in return, furnished them with firearms, by which means they obtained a decided superiority over the Hurons.

1645. *Impost on Wines, &c.*—The general court of Massachusetts, levied an impost on wines and strong liquors, for the support of government, the maintenance of fortifications and the protection of the harbors.

Iron Works at Lynn.—The general court of Massachusetts, this year, granted liberty to make iron. A work was set up in Lynn, and, for a considerable time, was carried on with spirit, but, at length, through some fault, failed.

Virginia Currency.—The legislature of Virginia, prohibited dealing by barter, and established the Spanish piece of eight, at six shillings, as the standard currency for that colony.

1646. *Impost on Exports from Connecticut.*—In an agreement made in 1644, between George Fenwick and agents of the colony of Connecticut, it was stipulated, that a certain duty on corn, biscuit, beaver and cattle, which should be exported from the river's mouth, should be paid to Fenwick for the space of ten years. This agreement was confirmed, the succeeding year, by the legislature, which, at the same time, passed an act imposing a duty of twopence per bushel on all grain, sixpence on every hundred weight of biscuit, and a small duty on all beaver exported from the mouth of the river during the same period.

Commercial Ordinance.—By an ordinance of the lords and commons of England, all merchandise, goods and necessaries, for the American plantations, were exempted from duty for three years, on condition that no ship or vessel, in any of the colonial ports, be suffered to land any goods, of the growth of the plantations, and carry them to foreign ports, excepting in English bottoms. This was the foundation of those subsequent navigation acts, which have been termed "the Commercial Palladium of England."

1647. *Trade with the West Indies.*—A trade was opened this year, between New England and Barbadoes, and other islands in the West Indies, which was profitable to the colonists and helped them to discharge their engagements with England.

1651. *Navigation Act.*—The parliament of England passed the famous navigation act. England now turned its attention towards the most effectual mode of retaining the colonies in dependence on the parent state, and of securing to it the benefits of their increasing commerce. With these views, the parliament enacted—"That no merchandise, either of Asia, Africa, or America, including also the English plantation there, should be imported into England, in any but English built ships, and belonging either to England, or English plantation subjects, navigated also by an English commander, and three-fourths of the sailors to be Englishmen, excepting such merchandise as should be imported directly from the original place of their growth or manufacture, in Europe, solely; and that no fish should, thenceforward, be imported into England or Ireland, nor exported thence to foreign ports, nor even from one of their own home ports, but what should be caught by their own fisheries only." This act, was evaded at first by New England, which still traded in all ports, and enjoyed a privilege peculiar to themselves, of importing their goods into England, free of customs. It was afterwards a source of difficulty to the colony.

1652. *First Mint in Massachusetts.*—The first mint was erected in New England for coining money. The money coined, was in shillings, sixpences and threepences. The law enacted, that "Massachusetts" and a tree in the centre, be on one side, and "New England" and the year of our Lord, and the figures XII., VI., III., according to the value of each piece, be on the other side. The several coins had N. E. on one side, and the number, with the year 1652, on the other. This date was never altered, though more coin was stamped annually for thirty years.

1655. *Change in the Virginia Currency.*—The Virginia legislature changed the Spanish piece of eight from six shillings, and established it five shillings sterling, as the standard of its currency.

1660. *Navigation Act Altered and Confirmed.*—The celebrated navigation act of 1651, continued, with additions. It enacted, that no sugar, tobacco, ginger, indigo, cotton, fustic, dying-woods, of the growth of the English territories in America, Asia or Africa, shall be transported thence to any other country, than those belonging to the crown of England, under the penalty of forfeiture; and all vessels sailing to the plantations were to give bonds to bring said commodities to England. The most submissive colonists considered the act as grievous, and contrived various methods to evade it. While the parliament restrained the colonial trade to England, it conferred the privilege of the sole production of tobacco to the plantations.

1662. *Law Establishing a Mint in Maryland.*—The assembly of Maryland besought the proprietary to take order for setting up a mint, and a law was passed for that purpose. "The great hindrance to the colony, in trade, for the want of money," is assigned as the reason for the measure. It was enacted, that the money coined, shall be of as good silver as English sterling; that every shilling, and so in proportion for other pieces, shall weigh above ninepence in such silver; and that the proprietary shall accept of it in payment of his rents and other debts. This

coin, being afterwards circulated, the present law was confirmed among the perpetual laws of Maryland, in 1676. This is the only law for coining money, which occurs in colonial history, previous to the American revolution, excepting the ordinance of Massachusetts, in 1652.

1663. *Act of Parliament, Engrossing the Colonial Trade.*—An act of parliament was passed, to monopolize the colonial trade for England. It prohibited the importation, into any of the English colonies, in Asia, Africa or America, of any commodities of the growth, production or manufacture, of Europe, except they were laden or shipped in England, Wales or the town of Berwick upon Tweed, and in English built shipping, and which were to be carried directly to the said colonies, with an exception of salt for the fisheries, wines from Madeira and Azores, and all sorts of victuals from Scotland and Ireland. By this act, the British colonist could obtain no European goods, but through the ports in England. A drawback of the duties, however, was generally allowed on the exportation of those goods to the colonies.

1665. *Massachusetts Shipping.*—The number of its ships and vessels, was about eighty, from twenty to forty tons; about forty, from forty to one hundred tons; and about twelve ships, above one hundred tons.

1669. *Hudson's Bay Company.*—Charles II. gave to Prince Rupert, and several lords, knights and merchants, associated with him, a charter, under the title of "The governor and company of adventurers, of England, trading into Hudson's Bay." The charter ceded to the company, the whole trade of the waters within the entrance of Hudson's straits, and of the adjacent territories. The entire sum which constitutes the original funds of the company, amounts to £10,500 sterling. The general opinion, in Forster's time, was, that the proprietors of this stock, who were not then ninety in number, gained about 2,000 per cent.

1671. *Commissioners of Trade and Plantations.*—A board of commissioners of trade, &c., was established at London. The first thing done, was to settle the form of a circular letter to the governors of all his majesty's plantations and territories, in the West Indies and islands belonging to them. What the board most insisted on, was, to know the condition of New England, whose spirit of liberty, with her power and influence, seem already to have excited the jealousy of the parent country. Evelyn, himself, one of the board, says: "What we most insisted on, was to know the condition of New England, which, appearing to be very independent as to their regard to England or his majesty, rich and strong as they now were, there were great debates in what style to write them, for the condition of that colony was such, that they were able to contest with all other plantations about them, and there was a fear of their breaking from all dependence on this nation."

1672. *Duties laid by Parliament on the Colonies.*—The commerce of the American colonies had already been regulated and restrained by the parliament of England. The parliament, considering the colonies as proper objects of taxation, enacted, that, if any vessel, which by law may trade in the plantations, shall take on board any commodities, and a bond with sufficient security, shall not have been given to unlade them in England, there shall be rendered to his majesty, for sugars, tobacco, ginger, cocoa-nut, indigo, logwood, fustic, cotton, wool, the several duties mentioned in the law. The duties of tonnage and poundage had been imposed, and extended to *every dominion of* the crown, at the restoration;

but this was the first act which imposed customs on the colonies alone, to be regularly collected by colonial revenue officers.

1676. *Custom of Tobacco in Virginia.*—The whole custom of tobacco from Virginia, collected in England this year, was £135,000 sterling. Maryland was probably included.

1678. *New York Exports and Imports.*—Its annual exports, besides peas, beef, pork, tobacco and peltry, were about 60,000 bushels of wheat. Its annual imports were to the value of about £50,000.

1681. *Commerce and Customs of Portsmouth.*—During the year, ending with April, 1681, there were entered at Portsmouth, New Hampshire, forty-nine vessels, from ten to one hundred and fifty tons burden. The amount of the provincial customs, levied at that port during the same year, arising from taxes on wines and liquors, and one penny a pound of the value on the first cost imported, was £61 3*s.* 1*d.* This was money of the province, which was of less value than sterling, thirty-three and one-third per cent.

1682. *Trade of Pennsylvania.*—The regulation and improvement of trade and commerce, in Pennsylvania, already engaged attention. A publication appeared this year, entitled: "The Articles of the Free Society of Traders in Pennsylvania, agreed upon by divers Merchants, for the better Improvement and Government of Trade in that Province."

1683. *Carolina.*—To remedy the distress felt, by want of a common measure of commerce, the parliament of Carolina "raised the value of foreign coins," and suspended all prosecution for foreign debts. The first of these acts, gave rise to the currency of Carolina, which afterward became extremely depreciated. The second, though at first confirmed by the proprietaries, was afterward dissented from, "because it was contrary to the king's honor, since it was, in effect, to stop the course of justice; because the parliament had no power to enact a law so contrary to those of England." They also issued orders, "that all officers should be displaced who had promoted it."

1686. *New York.*—The city incorporated by a charter. The shipping belonging to the city of New York, had increased to nine or ten three-mast vessels, of about eighty or ninety tons; two hundred ketches or barks, of about forty tons; and about twenty sloops, of twenty-five tons.

1690. *First Paper Money in the Colonies.*—The government of Massachusetts, issued bills of credit as a substitute for money, and these were the first issued in the American colonies.

1694. *Annapolis made a Port Town.*—The town of Severn, Ann county, in Maryland, was made a port town, and the residence of a collector and naval officer, and received the name of Annapolis.

1695. *Rice in Carolina.*—The planting of rice was introduced, about this time, into Carolina.

1696. *Shipping of New York.*—The shipping of New York, at this time, consisted of forty ships, sixty-two sloops and sixty boats.

Board of Trade and Plantations.—King William erected a new and standing council, for commerce and plantations, styled, the lords, commissioners for trade and plantations. With this board, the governors of the American colonies were obliged to hold a constant correspondence, for the improvement of their respective governments; and to this board, they

transmitted the journals of their councils and assemblies, the accounts of the collectors of customs and naval officers, &c.

1699. *Wool Manufactures of America.*—Complaints being made in England, that the wool and woollen manufactures of North American plantations began to be exported to foreign markets, formerly supplied by England, a law was made, by which no person might export, in ships, or carry, by horses, into any other place or colony out of the king's dominions, any wool or woollen manufactures of the English plantations in America, under forfeiture of ships and cargoes, and also of £500 penalty. This is the first mention, in the English statute book, of woollen manufactures in the American colonies.

1700. *Population of Boston.*—Boston, at this time, contained about 1,000 houses and above 7,000 souls.

1701. *Duty Imposed by Carolina.*—The assembly of Carolina, imposed a duty of three-farthings a skin, exported by residents, but double, if sent out in English vessels.

Newfoundland Fishery, employed this year, one hundred and twenty-one vessels, collectively, amounting to nearly 8,000 tons burden.

1702. *First Paper Currency of Carolina.*—A bill, passed by the provincial assembly, for stamping bills of credit which were to be sunk in three years by a duty laid upon liquors, skins and furs. This was the first paper money, issued in Carolina. For five or six years after its emission, it passed in the country at the same value and rate with the sterling money of England.

1703. *Culture of Silk in Carolina.*—Sir Nathaniel Johnson, about this time, introduced the raising of silk into Carolina, but the planters fixed on rice for their staple commodity.

1704. *Rhode Island Tonnage Duty.*—The legislature of Rhode Island, imposed a tonnage duty on all vessels not wholly owned by the inhabitants of that colony.

Regulation of Coins.—The American colonies, experiencing great inconveniences from the difference in the value of the same coin, Queen Anne, to remedy the evil by a general medium, published a proclamation "for settling and ascertaining the current rates of foreign coin, in her majesty's plantations, in America."

1712. *Bank Bills Issued.*—South Carolina established a public bank, and issued £48,000 in bills of credit, called bank bills, to be lent out at interest on landed, or personal security, and to be sunk gradually, by £4,000 a year. Hewatt, says: "Soon after the emission of these bills, the rate of exchange and the price of produce, rose, and in the first year, advanced 150, in the second, 200 per cent."

1713. *Connecticut.*—But one clothier in the colony. It had scarcely any foreign commerce. Its principal trade was with Boston, New York and the West Indies.

1714. *The First Schooner* is said to have been built about this time, at Cape Ann, by Captain Andrew Robinson.

1715. *Boston Lighthouse.*—The legislature of Massachusetts, passed an act for erecting a lighthouse on Beacon Island, at the entrance of Boston harbor.

Pig and Bar Iron, began, about this time, to be made in Virginia.

1716. *Exports from Mississippi.*—Two ships went to France, richly

laden, from the river Mississippi; and these were the first which carried over any merchandise from the Louisiana colony since its settlement.

Fish from Newfoundland.—From the Newfoundland fishery, there were exported to Spain, Portugal and Italy, 106,952 quintals of fish.

1717. *New Orleans Founded.*—In expectation of great advantages from the trade and commerce of Louisiana, the French were zealous to support this new settlement; and this year, accordingly, the foundation of New Orleans was laid.

The Trade of Massachusetts, employed 3,493 sailors and 492 ships, making 25,406 tons.

1718. *Import Bill of Massachusetts.*—An import bill was passed by the legislature of Massachusetts, which laid a duty, not only on West India goods and wines, but also on English manufactures, and a duty of tonnage on English ships. The duty on English goods, was 1 per cent. Before the session in May, the next year, the governor received instructions from the king to give all encouragement to the manufactures of Great Britain; and afterward received a reprimand from the lords justices, the king being absent, for consenting to the duty on English goods, &c. The court, on receiving official notice of this reprimand, "readily acknowledged the exceptions taken to that clause in the bill, were just and reasonable."

1719. *Lotteries Suppressed.*—The legislature of Massachusetts passed an act for the suppression of lotteries.

1720. *Trade with the French Prohibited.*—An act was passed, for prohibiting the sale of Indian goods to the French.

Tea began to be used in New England about this time.

Northwest Passage Attempted.—The Hudson Bay Company sent out Captains Dwight and Barlow, with a ship and a sloop, for the purpose of making discoveries of a passage to China, by the northwest parts of America, but they were never heard of afterwards.

1722. *Trading-House Erected at Oswego.*—Governor Burnett, of New York, well acquainted with the geography of the interior of the country, in order to get command of Lake Ontario, as well for the benefit of the trade and the security of the friendship of the Six Nations, as to frustrate the designs of the French, erected a trading-house at Oswego, in the country of the Senecas.

1723. *Pennsylvania Paper Currency.*—This province made its first experiment of paper currency. It issued, in March, £15,000. It made no loans, but on land security, or plate, deposited in the loan office; obliged the borrower to pay 5 per cent for the sums they took; made its bills a tender in all payments, on pain of confiscating the debt, or forfeiting the commodity; imposed penalties on all persons, who presumed to make any bargain or sale, on cheaper terms, in case of being paid in gold or silver; and provided for the gradual reduction of the bills, by enacting that one-eighth of the principal, as well as the whole interest, should be annually paid. The advantage of this emission, together with the insufficiency of the sum, induced the government, in the latter end of the year, to emit £30,000 more on the same terms.

1724. *Trade of Carolina.*—There were, this year, imported into South Carolina, four hundred and ninety-three slaves; also, British goods and manufactures, to the amount of between £50,000 and £60,000 sterling.

Art. X.—ART AND SCIENCE APPLIED TO COMMERCE.

NUMBER I.

The intimate connection of art and science, with commerce, is too well understood, at this period, to require apology for introducing to our readers, under the above general head, as we propose to do from time to time, such statements and facts as bear upon the improvements and discoveries made in the manufacture of the various articles known in commerce. We propose, therefore, to lay before our readers every advance made in art to produce new articles, or improve the quality or manufacture of those already forming the almost unnumbered commodities of trade in the commercial world. The facts, however, derived from recent and authentic sources, as collected and arranged below, will best illustrate our design.

I.—CHINESE ADULTERATION OF GREEN TEAS.

Mr. R. Warington read before the Chemical Society, as we learn from the London Athenæum, some observations on the green teas of commerce. On submitting a sample of green tea, supposed to be spurious, and which had been seized by the excise, to microscopic investigation, the author found that the variation of tints, which had led him to this mode of examination, was dependent on adventitious substances, mechanically attached or dusted on the surface of the curled leaves. The principal part of this powder was of a white color, interspersed with particles of an orange, and of a bright blue. From the abraded dust of this sample, obtained by agitation, some of these latter were separated, and proved on examination to be Prussian blue. The orange portion was apparently some vegetable color; and the white, and principal part, was found to contain silica, alumina, a little lime and magnesia, and was probably kaolin, or powdered agalmahalite, more particularly from the rubbed and prominent parts of the tea assuming a polished appearance. A great variety of other samples of teas were submitted to examination, but in all cases they were found to be faced with various substances to give to them the bloom and color which is so distinct a characteristic of the green teas of commerce. The unglazed varieties appear to have had no blueing material applied. Very high qualities of glazed teas have this facing, apparently tinted of a uniform pale blue before application; while others, still of high quality, and embracing the greater part of the samples examined, have both the white and blue particles very distinct, the latter varying in its quantity in the low qualities, as twankay, being pretty thickly powdered. When this facing was removed, the tea was found to be of a black color, but without the corrugated aspect presented by black teas ordinarily, and which evidently arises from the higher temperature to which they are subjected during the process of curing or drying. The substances separated from these green teas were sulphate of lime, a material analagous to kaolin, and Prussian blue, together with some yellow vegetable coloring body. It is evident that the whole of these teas come to this country in a dressed or adulterated state, and the onus of this should fall on the right shoulders. The author concluded by quoting various opinions and observations of persons long resident in China, by which his investigations are satisfactorily confirmed.

II.— CHEMICAL HISTORY OF SUGAR.

The following facts are derived from a paper recently read before the Royal Institution, London, by Mr. Fownes, on the chemical history of sugar, as given in the London Athenæum:—Under the general term "sugars," a number of sweet vegetable principles are included, more or less definite in their nature, and easily distinguished by their physical and chemical characters. The chief of these are the following:—Cane sugar, the ordinary

sugar of commerce; grape sugar, the sweet principle of fruits; crystallizable sugar, from ergot of rye; mannite, or manna sugar; glycerrhizin, the sweet principle of liquorice-root, &c. The chemical composition of mannite differs from that of the sugars proper, inasmuch as it does not contain oxygen and hydrogen in the proportions to form water. It is generally supposed that the sugar-cane was originally an inhabitant of the tropical east—it was cultivated in Sicily before the time of the crusades. About 1420, it was carried by the Portuguese to Madeira. Its introduction to the West Indies and the Brazils took place subsequently; and its cultivation has spread over nearly the whole of the region of the tropics where the soil and climate are at all suitable. In the islands of the British West Indies, the ripe canes are crushed by powerful machinery, consisting of a set of three rollers, connected by cog-wheels; the juice is received into a large pan, mixed with a little "temper," usually hydrate of lime, and rapidly heated to near the boiling point. The liquor is thus clarified, and the albumen always present separated in an insoluble form. It is then rapidly boiled down to the crystallizing consistence, in a series of open pans, heated by naked fires, and afterwards transferred to coolers to solidify. It is lastly drained from the uncrystallizable portion, or molasses, and exported.

Professor Mitscherlich communicated to the Berlin Academy of Sciences, in 1841, a beautiful experiment of Trommer, for the purpose of distinguishing between the two chief varieties of sugar, and other bodies of the same class. It reposes on the fact that grape sugar completely reduces the hydrated oxide of copper to suboxide, when heated with that substance in contact with excess of alkali, which is not the case with cane sugar. It is proposed to assay different samples of sugar in this manner—by dissolving a given weight in water, mixing it with solution of sulphate of copper, and excess of caustic potash, and heating the deep blue solution to the boiling point. The quantity of red suboxide produced might possibly then indicate the proportion of grape sugar present. A series of specimens of sugars of different qualities, thus treated, were upon the table, and the increasing proportion of red oxide with the coarseness of the article was very evident. The wilful adulteration of raw sugar by pale-colored, but comparatively worthless grape-sugar, made for the purpose on a large scale, from potato-starch, was lastly mentioned, and condemned as a cruel fraud, pressing heavily upon the poor.

III.—IMPROVED PAPER-HANGINGS.

The Secretary of the Society of Arts, in London, recently read a short paper on his proposition for rendering paper-hangings intellectually useful, by introducing historical, biographical, chronological, and other information, in such way as to form part of the pattern; or where required especially for use, without regard to ornament, the writing to be inserted in panelled patterns. Several designs were hung up in the room, to illustrate the subject. Mr. Whishaw proposes three different ways of effecting this desirable object: First, by cutting the inscriptions (likely to be extensively used) on wooden blocks, as the ordinary patterns. Secondly, by introducing moveable types, inserted into a frame, so arranged as to form a substitute for one of the numerous blocks usually required. Thirdly, to print all the pattern in the ordinary way, excepting such spaces as are required for the inscriptions, which may be inserted by hand, to suit the particular taste of individuals.

IV.—BUTTONS FROM CLAY.

It is stated in Chambers' Edinburgh Journal, that the principle of forming Mosaic tesseræ by the pressure of dry powder, has been applied to the manufacture of various kinds of buttons. They are called agate buttons, and are made of kaolin, or China clay, brought from the neighborhood of St. Austell, in Cornwall. This kaolin is the same as the celebrated pottery clay of the Chinese, which is obtained from disintegrated granite. The buttons are pretty and clear in appearance, and very hard. They are manufactured

ll shapes and sizes, plain and ornamented; and, as compared with the cost of mother-earl, are said to be about one-third the price.

V.—NEW METHOD OF IMPORTING QUICKSILVER.

. specimen has been shown, in Edinburgh, of the convenient and economical manner hich quicksilver is imported from China. It is poured into a piece of bamboo, about ot long, and three inches thick, and each end is closed with rosin. This rude form of ıage is quite as serviceable as the iron bottle in which the metal is usually brought.

VI.—IMPROVED SUGAR FROM BEET-ROOT.

Ve learn, from the London Athenæum, that M. Dumas recently gave a sketch of an rovement in the method of extracting sugar from beet-root, suggested and employed 'alenciennes by M. Schuzenbach. He did not feel himself as yet authorized to di-ɛe the details of the process; he therefore merely touched upon it generally, showing , by a new process, the whole (within a hundredth part) of the crystallizable sugar held olution in beet-root juice, can be converted directly into double-refined sugar. From variety of sugar called *bonne quatrieme*, eighty, and sometimes ninety per cent, of ble-refined, is produced—in short, the method is as efficient as the most careful che-al analysis. The products, however, of the manufactory conducted on M. Schuzen-'s principles, are only two—loaf sugar, perfectly white, and molasses so thick as to be nly for distillation. All the intermediate qualities have disappeared.

VII.—ACETIC ACID FROM CANE SUGAR.

f. Blondeau de Carolles announces an experiment which has proved to him that cane ır may be directly transformed into acetic acid, under the influence of caseum, with-losing or gaining anything, solely by a new molecular arrangement. This conversion ugar and cheese into acetic acid, by merely mixing them in certain proportions, and wing them to remain for a certain time, is so easy, that possibly the process may be pted in the arts, and especially as acetic acid may be thus produced at a much cheaper) than wine-vinegar.

MONTHLY COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE.

The spring business has been brought nearly to a close, and has, thus far, been a very cessful one. Prices of manufactured and imported produce have been well maintain-at rates higher than for some time previous. Money, which had risen temporarily in ne under the pressure of business, the speculations in stocks, and the efforts of banks obtain higher rates of interest, has gradually been becoming cheaper, as the spring siness approached its close, and the business paper maturing exceeded that created and ered for discount. Good paper is now discounted as low as 3½ a 4 per cent. The rket has, in some degree, been affected by the condition of the cotton market. In mer numbers, we noticed the great rise in price which had been effected under the eat speculations going on in that article, on the strength of a short crop. Those high ices, without a corresponding advance in the value of manufactured goods, produced a mbination abroad to reduce the quantity of the raw material taken for consumption—a rcumstance which, in connection with the continued large receipts, proved effectual in eaking speculation; and prices have fallen heavily, up to the arrival of the steamer of June 4th. Many failures occurred in consequence of this revulsion, but very unimpor-ant when compared with the disasters which attended similar speculations in former ears, when a large portion of the business turned on bank credits. Many cotton bills

were returned, and some degree of distrust was created among remitters; many of whom preferred specie at a higher cost, although good bills could be had at 9 per cent, while city-drawn bills commanded 9¼ per cent premium. Some considerable amounts of specie were shipped to Europe, and sums equally as large have come forward from the south. There seems now to be a feeling prevalent, that cotton has touched its lowest point. The condition of the market in England is exceedingly healthy, and the stock here has been rapidly reduced of late, both in consequence of foreign demand, and that for home consumption; for which latter purpose, unusually large quantities have been taken. The progress of the crop for three years, from Sept. 1st, to June 12th, has been as follows:—

COTTON CROP OF THE UNITED STATES, FROM SEPT. 1, TO JUNE 12.

	1842. Bales.	1843. Bales.	1844. Bales.
Stock, Sept. 1,.....	72,479	31,807	94,486
Receipts,.....	1,622,998	2,289,951	1,932,331
Supply,.....	1,695,477	2,321,758	2,026,817
Export,.....	1,302,040	1,851,108	1,395,385
Balance,.....	393,437	470,650	631,432
Deduct stock, June 12,.....	157,736	203,385	296,736
Consumed in United States,....	235,701	267,265	334,696

It has been stated that the bales this year are about 10 per cent heavier than last year, which would give an immense home consumption. A great quantity has also been taken by the manufacturers direct from plantation, which has not appeared in the receipts at the seaports. Should the manufacturers buy in the same proportion to the close of the year as they have thus far, their consumption will be 407,000 bales, against 325,000 bales last year—an increase of 25 per cent. The increased consumption in England has actually been large; although, from circumstances above alluded to, the quantity purchased in the last few months, by the Manchester spinners, has been less than last year. The home market of England, consequent upon low prices of food and abundance of money, has been very active, and the export trade greater than ever. Under these circumstances, the stocks of yarns and goods in the hands of manufacturers must have become greatly reduced; while the export of the raw material, from the United States to Great Britain, has been 330,000 bales, or 25 per cent less than last year, and the stock in this market is only 93,000 bales less than last year. In the absence of speculation, therefore, the prospects for the planters were never more promising; more especially that prices of supplies in this country, with all other articles that enter into the cost of production, are so cheap. This position of the cotton market is producing a very favorable impression upon the face of the markets generally; because fair profits, derived from the important staple of cotton, are always evinced in the stimulus given thereby to every branch of industry throughout the Union.

All branches of industry, throughout the Union, are thriving in an eminent degree—a fact which is apparent in the returns of public works, as seen in the following table:—

RECEIPTS ON PUBLIC WORKS IN THE UNITED STATES.

	1843.	1844.	Increase.		
Western Railroad, January to June 1,	$173,959	$230,903	$56,994	or 32	per ct.
Schen'dy and Troy, April 1 to June 1,	2,387	5,464	3,077	125	"
Tonawanda, January to June 1,.....	12,261	28,660	16,503	133	"
Reading, January to June 1,.....	43,875	114,122	70,246	172	"
New York and Erie,.....	10,483	17,804	4,321	33	"
Norwich and Worcester, Jan. to June,	45,563	76,286	30,722	75	"
Pennsylvania Canal, Del. Div., March to June,.....	9,330	20,384	11,053	120	"

RECEIPTS OF PUBLIC WORKS IN THE UNITED STATES.—Continued.

	1843.	1844.	Increase.	
s, November to May,.....	$88,729	$172,659	$83,929	95 per ct.
, 53 days,.....	548,251	670,690	122,438	25 "
ıtral Railroad, August 1 to ,.....	116,420	197,176	80,756	75 "

ge increase in the amount of money received, has been in the face of important in the rates of fare, and is illustrative of the enormous quantities of produce rough the channels of communication to market, producing a great fall in the ıe Atlantic border. The following is a comparative table of prices of agricul- ce, for several periods, in the New York market:—

PRICES OF PRODUCE IN NEW YORK.

	Dec., 1841.	July, 1842.	Dec., 1842.	June, 1843.	June, 1844.
ıd, fair,	9 a 9¼	8 a 9	8 a 8½	7¼ a 7½	7¼ a 7¾
.....	$7 50 a $8 25	$7 00 a $7 50	$6 00 a $6 50	$7 50 a $8 00	$5 00 a $5 25
.....	4 50 a 5 25	2 50 a 3 50	2 75 a 3 25	5 50 a 6 00	3 00 a 3 25
.....	9 25 a 10 00	7 75 a 9 00	8 50 a 9 00	9 25 a 10 50	8 50 a 8 56
.....	7 00 a 8 00	5 25 a 6 50	5 50 a 6 50	7 50 a 7 62	6 50 a 6 56
.....	6½ a 8	6½ a 7¼	6¾ a 7	5½ a 6	5½ a 6½
.....	15 a 17	10 a 11	10 a 13	7 a 9	8 a 12½
.....	6½ a 7½	6¼ a 7½	6 a 7	5 a 6	3 a 6
ıd,....	6 a 9	4 a 5	7 a 9½	6 a 7	3½ a 7
.....	6 25 a . ..	5 94 a 6 00	4 88 a 5 00	4 75 a 4 81	4 37 a 4 50
.....	1 30 a 1 35	1 25 a 1 28	90 a 1 00	90 a 95	95 a 1 03
.....	80 a 82	67 a 63	64 a 65	58 a 60	67 a 67½
ın,....	68 a 70	53 a 60	50 a 54	53 a 55	50 a ..
ıd Mer.,	35 a 38	28 a 37	27 a 30	27 a 30	28 a 40
ntucky,	5 a 9	3 a 6½	2½ a 5	2½ a 5	2 a 6
.....	3 25 a 3 37	2 50 a 3 00	2 50 a 3 25	2 12 a 2 30	2 75 a 3 25

es a very low level for prices as compared with the year 1841, which was com- a year of considerable prosperity. It is probably true that, from the extensive produce consequent upon the more prolific yield of the western country, the oney-value of produce should be less than formerly. It has usually been sup- writers that wheat forms a much better standard of value than most other arti- se the quantity which a given amount of labor will produce will vary less, in a f years, than that of most other articles. That calculation, we apprehend, was n the nature of the soil of Europe; which, being old, and much worked, and ı richness, did not vary more in its yield than the fluctuating character of sea- l warrant. When those lands, however, are exposed to the competition of the il of our western states, the greater abundance of better grain yielded by the ıe labor of the farmer, must reduce the general level of the money-value of e same manner that the discovery of the prolific mines of Potosi reduced the ilver throughout the world. This effect is the more marked when we conside ted nature of the currency of this country, as compared with former years. ring is a table of the currency of most of the states, at the latest returns, and at ıonding period of the preceding year:—

RETURN OF BANKS NEAREST TO JANUARY.

	January, 1841.			*January*, 1844.		
	Circulation.	Deposits.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Specie.
.....	$5,518,822	$1,986,413	$1,300,694	$3,672,470	$1,416,198	$1,545,106
a,.....	6,443,785	3,094,730	3,162,243	1,416,934	5,564,685	7,871,334
ina,...	3,006,514	1,712,745	1,606,537	1,902,064	1,672,539	709,803
.....	3,584,341	1,938,682	1,052,767	2,234,420	602,377	778,348
.....	2,865,568	472,748	1,076,551	2,115,225	200,948	969,306
.....	3,105,415	109,545	589,640	none.	....	....
.....	6,852,485	2,754,630	2,318,791	4,875,239	2,374,862	2,169,359
.....	1,754,380	733,534	289,792	1,806,663	7,927,498	223,769
.....	15,235,056	17,053,279	5,429,622	16,335,401	29,026,415	10,086,542
tts,....	9,112,882	7,257,410	2,991,804	9,219,267	10,213,887	7,206,815
.....	2,724,721	8,873,927	454,298	3,698,569	8,292,238	455,430
a,.....	7,060,120	5,340,200	2,100,000	6,022,268	9,794,871	6,389,520
.....	2,088,069	1,074,843	436,049	1,578,635	1,190,880	516,710

RETURN OF BANKS NEAREST TO JANUARY.—Continued.

	January, 1841.			*January*, 1844.		
	Circulation.	Deposits.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Specie.
Maryland, ...	$2,589,843	$3,136,979	$1,556,026	$1,647,559	$3,552,973	$3,592,995
D. of Columbia,...	121,975	653,386	945,699	557,230	963,223	1,683,330
Bank of Mobile,...	36,073	961,369	303,648	124,031	854,911	613,720
Bank of Missouri,.	347,530	336,909	309,327	1,073,099	1,220,569	1,306,957
Bank of Kentucky,	1,918,461	394,564	481,530	1,796,300	675,137	893,998
Total, ...	$74,332,050	$57,081,393	$25,826,547	$44,806,414	$88,303,631	$46,910,650
				74,332,050	57,081,393	25,826,547
Increase, ...				.....	$31,222,238	$21,084,103
Decrease, ...				$29,526,636	.....	.....

In 1841, the circulation was as three to one, of specie on hand. It is now less than dollar for dollar, showing that the currency now is actually less abundant than if there were no bank issues. Notwithstanding which, it is very plenty in all the channels of business, showing that the import of $23,000,000 of specie was redundant; and that, as soon as it becomes fairly active, a portion of it must again go abroad. The degree of activity possessed by a currency determines, in a great measure, the quantity which is required for the transaction of business. After a great expansion of paper money, and consequent revulsion, a degree of stagnation takes place in all the channels of business, and an indisposition on the part of those who have money, to spend it, that greatly diminishes the active quantity in the market, necessary for the fulfilment of contracts as they mature. In this state of affairs, money is brought into the country in large quantities, as last year, and remains dormant for a length of time, until reviving confidence restores the animation of the markets, calls money from its places of deposit, and gives an impetus to its circulation, which soon exhibits itself in an excess of quantity, that flows off to other countries. When this operation is assisted by the emission of paper money in swelling quantities, the effect produced is immensely greater. The evils arising from this action of paper money have been so great, as to call for a thorough change even in England, the hot-bed of the credit system.

In a former number, we made some remarks on the approaching renewal of the charter of the bank of England. The project of the government for its renewal has been promulgated by Sir Robert Peel, and it perfects a most important change in the state of affairs. The circulation of England, for many years, was of this description:—the issues of the bank of England being a legal tender, and redeemable in gold, and the issues of the private bankers, who were obliged to redeem only in the notes of the Bank of England. In 1826, joint stock banks were authorized; and in 1830, additional privileges were given them. In the progress of events, the private banks were gradually merged in joint stock banks. The issues of these latter soon began to influence the circulation to an extent which took from the bank of England, in some degree, its power of influencing the exchanges; or, in other words, of reducing the currency when the export of bullion showed the inflation to be too great. It was found that when, from a diminution of coin, it became necessary for the bank to diminish its issues, the volume of the currency was not thereby diminished, because the country banks eagerly availed themselves of the demand for money, occasioned by the contractions of the bank, to extend their issues; and the export of coin was accelerated, until the bank was on the verge of bankruptcy. The swelling volume of the paper, raising prices above the level of those of countries with which commercial intercourse is carried on, checks exports, and promotes imports, to an extent which requires a balance to be paid in specie. Where the currency is simply specie, the export of a portion diminishes the volume of the whole, and restores the equilibrium. This is the case with the island of Cuba; and the excess of import or of export is so small, that no perceptible fluctuation in the island currency ever takes place. In our number for October last, in an article on the commerce of Cuba, we gave a table of the *imports and exports of specie*, as follows:—

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF THE PRECIOUS METALS TO AND FROM CUBA.

Imports.

	1839.	1840.	1841.	1842.
Coined gold,.....	$1,497,408	$908,108	$595,780	$792,124
" silver,.....	709,770	454,118	185,859	366,646
	$2,207,178	$1,362,226	$781,639	$1,158,770

Exports.

Coined gold,.....	$850,858	$526,322	$326,842	$154,055
" silver,.....	874,945	526,778	765,829	1,136,605
	$1,725,803	$1,053,100	$1,092,671	$1,290,661
Excess of imports,....	481,375	209,126	.....	.....
" exports,....	.....	.....	311,032	131,891

This import and export expresses all the fluctuation which takes place in the currency of the island. The reverse has been the case in England; because, as fast as the bullion goes abroad, paper is pushed out to take its place.

The government of England, in renewing the charter of the bank, has attempted to approximate this result. The currency of the bank of England is now about £21,000,000, and the issues of the English private and joint stock banks about £8,000,000. All these banks issue, without reference to any fixed rule, upon their credit only. The capital of the bank of England consists of near £11,000,000, due to it from the government. The government, therefore, proposes that the bank shall be divided into two departments—one of issue, and the other for the conduct of the regular business of banking; all the bullion of the concern to be placed with the issue department, which shall place to the credit of the banking department an amount of bills equal to the capital of £11,000,000, and secured by it, and also of £3,000,000 secured by exchequer bills; making £14,000,000 issued on securities, for the profit of the bank. Beyond this, the bank cannot issue bills for its own profit, except to the amount of the bullion on hand. The private banks are restricted to the issue of an amount of their notes equal to the average of their emissions for the last few years, which would give a circulation equal to £7,000,000. The currency will then be a fixed circulation of £21,000,000, and a fluctuating currency equal to the bullion which may be in the bank of England. In order to illustrate this movement, we will take a table of the circulation of the bank of England and the joint stock banks, with the amount of bullion in the bank, and showing what would have been the state of affairs had the new system been in operation in 1833:—

ACTUAL CURRENCY OF ENGLAND, WITH THE ACTION OF THE NEW SYSTEM.

	Circulation.			Circulation under New Law.			
	B'k of Eng.	County Bk's.	Total.	Bullion.	Fluctuating.	Fixed.	Total.
April, 1834,.	£19,091,000	£10,191,104	£29,388,104	£9,948,000	£9,948,000	£21,000,000	£30,948,000
July, 1836,..	17,899,000	12,202,196	30,101,196	7,362,000	7,362,000	21,000,000	28,362,000
Jan., 1837,...	17,433,000	12,011,697	29,433,697	4,987,000	4,987,000	21,000,000	25,987,000
Dec., 1838,...	18,469,000	12,225,488	30,694,488	9,362,000	9,362,000	21,000,000	30,362,000
Dec., 1839,...	16,732,000	11,422,445	28,154,445	2,887,000	2,887,000	21,000,000	23,887,000
March, 1844,	21,471,000	8,459,889	29,930,889	16,011,000	16,011,000	21,000,000	37,011,000

This table embraces all the important fluctuations since 1833. In 1834–35–36, the currency swelled to an extent which raised prices, on an average, 35 per cent; and, although the harvest was good, produced an export of bullion that reduced the amount on hand from near £10,000,000, in 1834, to about £4,000,000, in 1837. In that period, the bank of England, aware of the danger, had reduced its currency about £2,000,000, or 10 per cent. As that currency was withdrawn, the newly constituted joint stock banks expanded theirs to the same amount of bills, being 20 per cent of their circulation. Hence, there was £150,000 more paper in circulation in 1837, after the immense contraction of the bank, than there had *been in 1834, when that* contraction commenced. The drain of

coin was unchecked, and the bank was obliged to denounce the American trade, precipitating the disasters which overtook this country in that year. It will be observed that, had the new plan been in operation, the volume of the currency would have been reduced from about £31,000,000 to £25,287,000; a positive reduction of £6,000,000, or 20 per cent of the whole currency. It is evident, however, that this could not have taken place; because, before so large a reduction had taken place, the export of coin would have been checked. As that was not the case, the bank resorted to the most destructive measures to save itself; and the violence of its movement brought back the coin to its vault, to be again carried away by a short harvest. In order to observe the practical operation of the currency upon prices, we will take from Porter's tables a statement, showing the state of the currency, with the comparative prices of wheat, and of fifty articles of commerce, during the period of expansion. The rise in the value is calculated per cent, upon the actual price of each article in 1834, as follows:—

Years.	Currency.	Bullion.	Price Wheat.	Price 50 art'les.
1833,.....	£27,436,120	£8,983,000	1.000	1.000
1834,.....	29,288,104	9,948,000	.916	1.099
1835,.....	28,671,828	6,741,000	.760	1.150
1836,.....	28,396,414	7,076,000	.666	1.255
1836, July,....	30,203,196	7,362,000	.930	1.346
1837, July,....	29,074,437	4,750,000	1.112	1.133

The prices of both wheat, and the fifty other articles, in 1833, are assumed as unity. The harvests in those years were very abundant, and the price of wheat fell gradually, until, in 1836, it was 66 per cent only of its price in 1833; being a fall of 24 per cent. Fifty other articles, in the same time, had risen 25 per cent, and continued to advance to 35 per cent, in July, 1836. The bank, being at that time seriously alarmed, stopped the credits of the three famous W.'s in the American trade, and curtailed vigorously. The result was a general fall in prices, of 21 per cent, to the July of 1837. Wheat had, in the meantime, advanced considerably, under the influence of a short harvest. The bullion in the bank, then, as seen in the first table, continued to advance up to December, 1838, and the circulation had again increased. The short harvest had then caused a demand for gold, which, in eight months, brought the concern to the verge of bankruptcy. The distress created by the violent action of the bank to save itself, at that time, has now scarcely passed away. The degree of distress is manifest in the low state of the country circulation. These violent fluctuations, under the new law, will not occur; because its action upon the currency will be so prompt and gradual, that the evil cannot reach any great length before it is corrected;—whereas, under the old plan, the bank is forced to the verge of ruin; and then, to save itself, is obliged to bankrupt half the community, and compel people to sell an immense quantity of goods for comparatively a small sum in coin. During the past two years, it forced prices so low, that double the quantity of goods has been given for £13,000,000 of bullion which it has acquired, than would have been the case had prices been undisturbed by an unnatural action of paper credits. The necessity for these violent contractions has arisen from the sudden demand for specie, to export in payment of corn, at a time when the regular exports of goods, in consequence of high prices, are scarcely sufficient to maintain the exchanges. The new scheme is intended, by preventing any unnatural advance in prices, to maintain a proper degree of export. Hence, in 1834–37, when the bank of England withdrew £2,000,000 of its circulation, the vacuum was immediately filled by country issues. This cannot now be done. The maximum of the country circulation is fixed at the average of the last few years of low currency. When, therefore, the volume of the circulating medium is diminished by the export of coin, the country banks will have no power to counteract the movement. The import and export of the precious metals will alone influence the amount of the currency; *thus establishing, in fact,* a specie currency at the centre of the world's commerce

MERCANTILE LAW DEPARTMENT.

MERCANTILE LAW CASES.

MASTERS OF SHIPS.

The master of a ship is the person entrusted with the care and management of it. His power and authority are so great, and the trust reposed in him is of so important a nature, that the greatest care and circumspection ought to be used by the owners in the choice and appointment of him. It appears, by the language of the ancient sea-laws and ordinances, that the master was formerly, in almost every instance, a part-owner of the ship, and consequently interested, in a two-fold character, in the faithful discharge of his duty. At present, it frequently happens that he has no property in the ship. The law of some countries requires a previous examination of the person to be appointed to this important office, in order to ascertain his nautical experience and skill; in other countries, he is liable to be punished as a criminal if, having undertaken the charge, he is found incompetent to the performance of it. In this country, the owners are left to their own discretion, as to the skill and honesty of the master; and, although he is bound to make good any damage that may happen to the ship or cargo by his negligence or unskilfulness, if he is of ability to do so, yet he cannot be punished as a criminal for mere incompetence.—*Abbott.*

SEAMEN'S WAGES—SHIP RIGBY GROVE.

In the British Admiralty Court, (London,) February 21, 1843. In this case, the vessel sailed from Hull, on the Greenland whale fishery, on the 6th of March, 1838, and on the 27th of June was jammed in the ice, and ultimately lost. A portion of the cargo was salved by the exertions of the mariners, and two other vessels. This was a suit by one of the mariners to recover wages, and an allowance of 1*s.* 9*d.* per tun of oil, as per contract. The defence of the owners was, that as no part of the ship had been salved, and no freight had been received, there was no fund out of which the mariner could be paid, and that he had had advances, to the full amount of his wages, simply, for three months. Dr. Lushington said this was a case of importance as regarded the jurisdiction of the court, and he should take time to consider his decision; and accordingly, on March 2, 1843, delivered his judgment in this case. The vessel sailed from Hull, on the Greenland whale fishery, on the 6th of March, 1838, and on the 27th of June was jammed in the ice, and ultimately lost. A portion of the cargo was salved by the exertions of the mariners, and two other vessels, carried to Holland, and sold. This was a suit by one of the mariners to recover wages, and an allowance of 1*s.* 9*d.* per tun of oil, as per contract. The defence of the owners was, that, as no part of the ship had been salved, and no freight had been received, there was no fund out of which the mariner could be paid. The learned judge observed that two questions arose in this case—first, whether the wages were due; secondly, whether this court had jurisdiction to entertain the suit, and decide upon the claim. With regard to the latter and more important point, the result of the cases and of the law, as laid down by Lord Tenterden, was, that where there was a special contract, the jurisdiction of the court of admiralty was ousted. What was or was not a special contract, had not been clearly defined. In the Sydney Cove, Lord Stowell had rejected an additional article, in a suit for wages, in which a contract was pleaded of a special character; and, comparing the contract in that case with that in the present, he was of opinion that this was a case in which this court had no jurisdiction. First, it was a special contract, which, as laid down by Lord Tenterden, ousted the jurisdiction of this court; secondly, the principle had been acted upon by Lord Stowell; and thirdly, this being a case of partnership, he (the learned judge) felt the difficulty to be this—that this court had not the means of doing justice between all the parties.

SEAMEN'S WAGES—THE TWO SISTERS.

In the British Admiralty Court, (London,) August 2, 1843. Dr. Lushington gave sentence in this case, which was argued on the 7th of June, 1843. It was a suit by the mate of the Two Sisters, to recover the balance of his wages, amounting to 28*l.*, which was refused on the ground that he had forfeited the wages by deserting the ship, when homeward-bound, at Swansea, where she had touched on her voyage from Belize to London. The learned judge was of opinion that, upon the evidence produced by the owners, he could not pronounce that there had been a total, or even a partial desertion; and, although he was of opinion that the seaman had acted with extreme impropriety, yet he could not refuse to pronounce for the wages sued for, and, of course, with the costs.

SEAMEN'S WAGES—THE RELIANCE.

In the British Admiralty Court, (London,) May 26, 1843. In this case, an objection was offered to the admission of the summary petition of the widow of a seaman who was lost in the Reliance, and for whose wages she now sued the wreck. Dr. Lushington held that the wages were a lien upon the wreck, and that the widow was entitled to sue.

SALVAGE.

Salvage is an allowance made for saving a ship or goods, or both, from the dangers of the sea, fire, pirates, or enemies; and it is also sometimes used to signify the thing itself which is saved; but it is in the former sense only in which we are at present to consider it. The propriety and justice of such an allowance must be evident to every one; for nothing can be more reasonable than that he who has recovered the property of another from imminent danger by great labor, or perhaps at the hazard of his life, should be rewarded by him who has been so materially benefited by that labor. Accordingly, all maritime states, from the Rhodians down to the present time, have made certain regulations, fixing the rate of salvage in some instances, and leaving it in others to depend upon particular circumstances.—*Park.*

SALVAGE—THE QUEEN *vs.* THE CAROLINE.

In the British Admiralty Court, June 7, 1843. The Caroline, a brig of three hundred tons burthen, with a valuable cargo of general merchandise, (value with the ship upwards of 15,000*l.*,) left Liverpool on the 16th of January, on a voyage to the Cape of Good Hope. The master, in his protest, stated that, from that day to the 20th, they had moderate breezes from the south and southwest; that at half past four o'clock on the 20th, they struck on a sandbank to the east of Wicklow Head; and at nine o'clock, finding that she had seven feet six inches water in her hold, the master and crew, who had got into the skiff and jolly-boat, left her in a sinking state, landing near Wicklow. On the following morning, the vessel was discovered drifting in the Irish Channel by the Emily, a small schooner of seventy-four tons, with a crew of six persons, bound from Liverpool to Terceira, and boarded. The hatches of the Caroline were open, the rudder was loose, the lashing of the binnacle was cut, the binnacle was lying in the gangway, and some bottles of spirits were on the deck; but they found only two or three feet water in the hold. The master of the Emily placed three of his five men on board the derelict, and accompanied her to Holyhead in the Emily. Dr. Haggard and Dr. Twiss, for the salvors, asked for a very liberal reward, on the ground of the large property salved, and the loss sustained by the owners of the Emily, through her inability to fulfil the charter-party. Dr. Addams and Dr. Harding, for the owners of the Caroline, admitted the value of the service; but contended that it was not a case of exalted merit on the part of the salvors, by reason of risk, labor, or skill. Dr. Lushington said, that as to the cause of the accident to the Caroline, the court had no information; but, if he took the account given by the master, the property was in the most imminent danger, which was the reason assigned by the master *for quitting her.* He must say that the salvors were entitled to very considerable credit

for the preservation of this valuable ship and cargo, if the vessel was in the state in which she was represented to have been by those who abandoned her; and it was an arduous undertaking for three men to navigate a vessel of three hundred tons in that state. If the weather had become tempestuous, their lives might have been lost, as well as the vessel and cargo. It so happened, that no very great labor or time sufficed to place the vessel in a port of safety. She was a derelict; and, though the rule formerly was to give the salvors in such a case a moiety of the property salved, this rule had been properly abandoned, and the sum allotted depended upon the circumstances of the case; and, taking these into consideration, he should allot 1,800*l.* to the salvors, apportioning it as follows:—600*l.* to the owners, (including their losses,) 400*l.* to the master, 250*l.* to the mate, and 550*l.* to the three men and a boy.

CLAIM FOR SALVAGE SERVICES—THE ANN.

In the British Admiralty Court, July 25th, 1843. This was a claim by the owners, masters and crews of the Marshal Bennett and Cyrus, two whalers, and also by the owners, master and crew of the Australian Packet, against five thousand chests of tea, and ninety bales of silk, part of the cargo of the bark Ann, for salvage services rendered to that vessel, under the following circumstances:—The bark being on her voyage from China to London, on the 14th of June, 1842, got upon a coral reef, near Samboangan, on the southwest coast of the island of Mindanao, one of the Philippines. In this state, she received assistance from the Marshal Bennett, and two boats from the Cyrus, whereby she got off the reef, and was brought into Samboangan roads. The Spanish authorities evincing an unfriendly disposition, and refusing to allow the Ann to repair at that place, the master agreed with the masters of the Marshal Bennett and the Australian Packet, (bound to Sydney,) to convey her to the straits of Macassar, whence she might get to Sourabaya or Java to repair. Accordingly, on the 23d of June, the three vessels sailed in company to the straits of Macassar, where they arrived on the 14th July, and thence the Ann found her way to Sourabaya, where she was condemned, and her cargo was transhipped, and sent to this country, where it was arrested in a cause of salvage. The value of the property was 30,000*l.* Dr. Addams and Dr. Bayford were heard for the two whalers; the Queen's Advocate and Dr. White for the Australian Packet; and Dr. Haggard and Dr. R. Phillimore for the consignees of the cargo. Dr. Lushington allotted 1,200*l.* to the Marshal Bennett, 300*l.* to the Australian Packet, and 200*l.* to the Cyrus.

CHARTER-PARTY.

The term charter-party is generally understood to be a corruption of the Latin words *charta partita;* the two parts of this and other instruments being usually written, in former times, on one piece of parchment, which was afterwards divided by a straight line cut through some word or figure, so that one part should fit and tally with the other, as evidence of their original agreement and correspondence, and to prevent the fraudulent substitution of a fictitious instrument for the real deed of the parties. With the same design, indentation was afterwards introduced; and deeds of more than one part thereby acquired among English lawyers the name of indenture. This practice of division, however, has long been disused, and that of indentation is become a mere form. This instrument, when the ship is let at the place of the owners' residence, is generally executed by them, or some of them, (and frequently by the master, also,) and by the merchant or his agent. In a foreign port it must, of necessity, if it be by deed under seal, be executed by the master only, and the merchant or his agent, unless the parties have an agent resident in such port authorized to this purpose by deed, or letter of attorney under seal.—*Abbott.*

CHARTER-PARTY OF AFFREIGHTMENT.

In the Court of Common Pleas, (British,) July 6th, 1843. Sittings at Nisi Prius, at Guildhall, before Mr. Justice Maule, and a special jury. Miln and others *vs.* Little. This was an action upon a charter-*party of affreightment*, for neglecting to provide a full and com-

plete cargo of East India dry-goods for the ship Amelia, over and above her provisions, tackle, and furniture. The defence on the record was, that a full and complete cargo was provided for the vessel. The plaintiffs are the owners of the Amelia, a vessel of two hundred and forty-four tons burthen, per register, which the defendant chartered in the year 1841. The Amelia made her outward voyage from London with three hundred and sixty-three tons of coal on board; and, though she drew fifteen feet of water, she behaved well during the voyage, and arrived quite safe in the port of Calcutta in the month of July, 1841. After she had cleared out, the captain sent to the consignees of the vessel, the agents of the defendant at Calcutta, for a cargo to take back to London, and accordingly about three hundred and forty tons weight of tallow and skins were placed in her hold. The captain informed the agents that the Amelia would carry more; but they replied that the Amelia was already loaded so as to draw fourteen feet three inches of water, and that if he persisted in taking in more cargo, the surveyors for Lloyd's would not permit him to sail except under protest, and that the insurance offices in Calcutta would probably not accept the risk of the voyage. Under these circumstances, the captain sailed from Calcutta to London, the Amelia drawing fourteen feet four and a half inches; and, having communicated with his owners, an action was brought for the breach of the charter-party. Two gentlemen who were called for the plaintiffs gave it as their opinion that the Amelia could have carried thirty tons more of heavy tons than actually composed her cargo; while, for the defendant, it was stated by Captain Oakes, who surveyed the vessel before she left Calcutta, in August, 1841, that if she had been more deeply laden than she was at the time of her departure, she would in all probability have been obliged to put back to Calcutta in a leaky state. Mr. Justice Maule left it to the jury to say whether, under the circumstances, a greater tonnage of cargo could have been put on board than was actually stowed in the hold of the Amelia when she left Calcutta. It was arranged between the counsel that the damages, if the jury found for the plaintiffs, should be settled by the parties themselves, or their professional representatives. The jury retired to consider their verdict, and on their return stated that they found for the plaintiffs. Damages 125*l.*, (at the rate of 6*l.* 5*s.*) for 20 tons.

SPECIAL PAPER.

In the British Court of Exchequer, June 7, 1843. (Sittings in Banco.) Stringer *vs.* Campbell. Mr. Erle appeared for the defendant in this case, which was a special one, arising out of an action on a charter-party; and from the statements of the learned counsel it appeared that his clients were the owners of a ship called the Marmion, and had entered into a charter-party with the defendant for a voyage to Canton, just before the troubles broke out between Captain Elliott and the representatives of his Celestial Majesty. On the arrival of the vessel at Hong-Kong, its further progress was delayed by the well-known order or caution of the plenipotentiary, to the effect that no ship should proceed up the river. Under these circumstances, after several weeks' delay, the captain came to an arrangement with the agent of the defendant at Hong-Kong, and delivered his cargo at that place. The question of law, arising out of these facts, being whether the defendant was answerable, under the usual clause for demurrage, for the loss of time which had been so occasioned, Mr. Erle contended in the affirmative, and submitted that, however unforeseen or uncontrollable the cause of that delay might have been, still its consequences ought to fall on the charterer, who, by his contract, had bound himself to make it good. The Attorney-General appeared on the other side, but was stopped in his address by Lord Abinger, who, with the concurrence of the whole bench, gave judgment at once in favor of the defendant, it being their lordships' opinion that no charterer could be made responsible for any delay which might arise from a state of things such as that relied on by the plaintiff. Judgment for the defendant accordingly.

PROVISIONS FOR EMIGRANTS.

In the British Court of Exchequer, February 16, 1843. (Sittings at Nisi Prius, before Mr. Baron Gurney, at Guildhall, London.) Morgan *vs.* Brynes.

The plaintiff is the captain and owner of the Robert Bruce, and the defendant is an emigration agent, against whom this action was brought to recover divers sums of money, expended by the plaintiff on behalf of the defendant. It appears that the defendant chartered a portion of the Robert Bruce, for the conveyance of two hundred and sixty-seven emigrants to New York in last year, it being part of the contract that the defendant should find the emigrants in provisions. By the emigration act, parties so situated are bound to see that the passengers are provided with certain quantities of provisions, calculated to last for ten weeks, as the outside limit of the voyage; and, according to the same act, an officer attended on board the ship before sailing from Liverpool, to examine whether the act had been complied with. The provisions were then examined, and passed as sufficient, while the plaintiff himself produced and signed a certificate that the requisite quantity of provisions was on board. Soon after this, the Robert Bruce left the port, and made the best of her way across the Atlantic; but, meeting with bad weather, she had a very long passage; and, after having been out nearly six weeks, it was found that the emigrants were nearly starving, their provisions being all exhausted. Under this emergency, the plaintiff put into Halifax, where he expended 45*l.* in supplying the emigrants with food, and there and at Boston incurred divers minor expenses on their account, to which he now alleged the defendant was liable, under the charter-party. The defendant now paid 20*l.* into court on account of a portion of the latter items, and the questions now raised were whether, in point of law, the defendant was liable to make good the outlay for the goods at Halifax, and the balance of the claim brought against him. Mr. Baron Gurney was of opinion that the defendant was liable, but reserved leave to move, and afterwards left it to the jury to say whether the proper quantity of provisions had been shipped in the first instance, as required by law. If the jury should think that had been the case, they would find for the defendant; but, as the provisions had all been expended before six weeks, which ought to have lasted four more, it was difficult to say how that could have been. As to the residue of the claim, that was not within the terms of the contract, and the plaintiff could not recover for it. In conclusion, the learned judge observed that it was highly necessary, in such cases, that the public officers should discharge the duty of examining into the state of the provisions with the utmost nicety; as, without any intention, perhaps, to do wrong, it was clear that the greatest cruelty and hardship might be inflicted, as in this case, on the emigrants; who, if left to themselves, might often be tempted to go on board without proper supplies. He hoped, therefore, that this case would be a warning for the future to all such parties. The jury, after a moment's deliberation, found a verdict for the plaintiff. Damages, 45*l.*

TARIFF—WORSTED GOODS.

In the United States Circuit Court, New York, May, 1844. Paton & Stewart *vs.* Edward Curtis.

This was an action to recover back duty. The plaintiffs imported window cords, composed of worsted over twine, and some mohair goods, on which duty was charged, as being woollens; it being contended, on the part of the United States, that if these goods were not woollens, they were bindings, and that one of the articles was a manufacture of hemp and tow, subject to duty. But the plaintiffs showed that the articles were well known in trade as worsted goods, and not as woollen or bindings, or as a manufacture of hemp and tow. Verdict for plaintiffs, *for amount claimed.*

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

COMPEND OF THE TARIFF OF CUBA.

THE rates of duties in the following compend of the tariff are those imposed on importations, in vessels other than Spanish, from the United States. The manner of ascertaining the amount to be paid, is as follows:—

Beef is valued at $9 per barrel.

100 barrels, at $9,	$900 00	
30½ per cent on this amount,		$276 75
One-seventh,		39 53
One per cent,		2 77
Total amount of duty,		$319 05

Importations from other than Spanish ports, in Spanish vessels, pay 6 per cent less duty than quoted in this work, on the same valuations.

All liquors pay, over and above the duty quoted, 50 cents per pipe, 25 cents per half pipe, and 12½ cents per demijohn, or dozen bottles, for the Orphan Asylum.

No Spanish vessel under sixty tons, or foreign vessel under eighty tons register burthen, can import goods "in deposit."

Foreign products that have paid an import duty can be exported free. All vessels can load with molasses at any of the outports of the island, if they first enter at an open port, the consignee giving a bond that they will return to clear.

No allowance will be made on jerked beef, for damage, over and above 6 per cent if from the United States, or 14 per cent if from South America, unless the beef is so much damaged as to be worthless, in which case it must be thrown into the sea, and duty paid on the actual quantity imported.

A COMPEND OF THE TARIFF OF CUBA, WITH TARES AND ALLOWANCES MADE AT HAVANA.

Articles.	Valuation.	Rate of duty.	Tares and Allowances.
Ale, cask, ... arrobe	$1 50	30½	
" bottles, ... dozen	3 00	30½	Custom-house allowances
Apples, ... bbl.	3 00	24½	for breakage, 6 per cent
Asses, male, ... each	82 50	24½	on invoice.
" female, ... "	55 00	24½	
Barrels, ... "	50	24½	
Beef, ... bbl.	9 00	30½	
" jerked, ... arrobe	2 00	30½	This is on American jerk-
" smoked, ... quintal	7 00	30½	ed beef.
Beans, ... arrobe	75	30½	Tare, actual.
Beer, cask, ... "	1 50	30½	
" bottles, ... dozen	3 00	30½	Breakage, 6 per cent.
Biscuit, box, ... 6 lbs.	50	30½	
" keg, ... quintal	8 33	30½	
Bread, ... bbl.	8 00	30½	Tare, 20 lbs. per barrel.
Boards, ... M. feet	20 00	24½	5 per ct. allowed for splits.
Bricks, ... M.	12 00	30½	From the United States.
Butter, ... quintal	15 00	24½	Tare, 16 per cent.
Candles, tallow, ... "	12 00	30½	
" sperm, ... "	32 00	24½	
Cheese, ... "	11 00	24½	
Coal, ... "	12½	30½	
Cocoa, Caraccas, ... "	16 00	24½	
" all other, ... "	6 00	24½	
Codfish, ... "	3 50	24½	Tare, 10 per cent.
Cordage, ... "	fixed.	$7 12½	
" Manilla, ... "	5 00	30½	
Cotton, ... "	13 50	24½	

PEND OF THE TARIFF OF CUBA, WITH TARES AND ALLOWANCES, etc.—Continued.

es.	Valuation.	Rate of duty.	Tares and Allowances.
ttles,.....dozen	3 00	30¼	Breakage, 6 per cent.
wood,..... "	20 00	30¼	
f wood in shook, not painted,..... "	15 00	30¼	
ith cane seats, and p'nted and gilded, "	31 00	30¼	
ith cushion seats,. "	ad val.	30¼	
fahog'y, with cane seats,..... "	50 00	30¼	
cking,..... "	25 00	30¼	
.....quintal	4 00	30¼	
.....bbl.	fixed.	$10 00	
k,.....100 gall.	62 50	30¼	
s and bottles,.....dozen	2 25	30¼	Breakage, 6 per cent.
nes,.....each	1 50	24¼	
.....quintal	10 00	30¼	Tare on canvassed hams, 2 lbs. each.
.....boxes of 100 fish	75	30¼	
.....each	fixed.	$6 00	
casks,..... "	2 00	24¼	
.....M.	30 00	24¼	
geldings,.....each	150 00	30¼	Stallions and mares, free.
.....quintal	12 00	30¼	Tare, 16 per cent.
l,..... "	3 50	30¼	
dian,.....bbl.	5 00	30¼	
pper,.....quintal	25 00	24¼	Tare, 12 per cent.
on,..... "	7 00	24¼	Tare, 12 per cent.
.....100 feet	6 25	24¼	
m and whale,...quintals	8 00	24¼	Tare, 20 per cent.
.....100 strings	4 00	24¼	
riting,.....ream	2 50	30¼	
rapping,..... "	50	30¼	
.....bbl.	3 00	24¼	
..... "	14 00	30¼	
es,.....quintal	10 00	24¼	
bls,.....arrobe	1 50	30¼	
ottles,.....dozen	3 00	30¼	Breakage, 6 per cent.
.....bbl.	2 50	24¼	
.....quintal	6 00	30¼	Custom-house allows 11 per cent on tierces, and 2 lbs. on sacks for tare. Purchasers are allowed 70 lbs. per tierce, and nothing on sacks.
.....fanega	fixed.	$2 50	
.....M.	3 75	24¼	
.....dozen	15 00	30¼	
box,.....each	87½	24¼	
hhd,..... "	1 00	24¼	
r,.....quintal	10 00	30¼	
.....M.	25 00	24¼	
.....quintal	9 00	24¼	
.....bbl.	3 00	24¼	
.....lb.	87½	24¼	
.....M.	25 00	24¼	
, chewing,.....quintal	18 00	30¼	
, smoked,..... "	7 00	24¼	

CUSTOM-HOUSE RULES AND REGULATIONS,

FOR THE GOVERNMENT OF ALL VESSELS ARRIVING AT HAVANA.

ptains or supercargoes, the moment their vessel comes to anchor, must deliver, tely upon being visited by the custom-house boat, a manifest declaring his name, ne vessel, her tonnage, whence she comes, the number of bales, packages, and ner article he has on board, or of which his cargo is composed, with their remarks, numbers, and consignees. Twelve hours after delivery of the above mani-

fest, no alteration or addition whatever can be made in the same—the said twelve hours to run from six in the morning until seven in the evening, every day of the year, without exception of festivals.

The captain or supercargo is required, before twenty-four hours have elapsed after the delivery of the manifest, to present himself at the custom-house, and there take oath, in presence of the collector and interpreter, declaring that what he has manifested is a true and correct account of his cargo.

In case the captain does not present the manifest, and swear within the time above-mentioned, he will incur a fine of one thousand dollars.

In case the captain or supercargo is unable to make out a manifest, or take oath, this will be the duty of the consignee, or one of his clerks.

The twelve hours prescribed in the first regulation having elapsed, all packages which have been omitted in the manifest will be confiscated, and the captain fined in double the value of the same, according to the valuation prescribed by the tariff, well understood that their value does not exceed one thousand dollars. In case their value should exceed the above sum, and belong to the owner of the vessel, the captain, or the supercargo, the vessel, freight, and all other profits, shall be confiscated.

Neither before nor after the delivery of the manifest, can anything whatever be discharged from the vessel without the permission of the custom-house. Should anything be discharged, although it be of little value, or free of duty, the captain or supercargo will incur a fine of one thousand dollars, with the confiscation of the goods thus discharged.

In case goods of one vessel lying in the harbor are transported on board of another without the permission of the collector, the captain who has received them, and all those who have assisted to transport them, will be fined in treble their value, and the goods themselves will be confiscated, with the vessel or vessels in which they have been found, together with the boats, launches, and all other things which have been employed in the transportation of the same.

All goods that have been fraudulently disembarked, and seized by the custom-house officers, will not only be confiscated, and fined according to the sixth rule, but will be immediately appraised by the custom-house appraisee; and if their value, at the highest market price, exceed four hundred dollars, the vessel, with all her appurtenances, shall be included in the penalty of confiscation.

If any goods manifested for transit be discharged or introduced fraudulently, they will not only be confiscated, but also the vessel, together with the boats and launches employed in discharging the same.

Should a vessel discharge merchandise, be the quantity small or large, at a non-licensed port, said merchandise, as also the vessel and all her appurtenances, shall incur the penalty of confiscation.

All stores must be manifested, and if they appear to be disproportionately abundant, such excess shall pay duty. All baggage, likewise, must be manifested; and, should fraud be detected in them, they shall be subject to penalty, and those implicated in such fraud shall pay thrice the value of the article.

Permission being obtained, the discharge of the vessel is to begin at dawn of day, at the wharf, or any other place pointed out for that purpose. Goods requiring to be examined, weighed, or measured, shall not be removed to any other wharf or place, without permission from the collector, under pain of confiscation.

If, on the conclusion of the discharge, there should be found one or more packages short of the quantity manifested, without an invoice of such packages having been presented, and consequently without their contents being known, and the name of the consignee, it will be understood that the captain or supercargo of the vessel has committed fraud against the custom-house, and shall be fined two hundred dollars for each package *missing*.

In the outward despatch, as soon as the vessel shall have finished loading, she shall be visited and examined; and if merchandise be found on board exceeding the quantity cleared, or fraudulently shipped, and without the knowledge of the custom-house, such merchandise shall be confiscated, and the captain fined in thrice its value. But, should it consist of gold, silver, tobacco, or cigars, of more than the value of four hundred dollars, the vessel and all her apparel shall be confiscated. All goods detected in the act of being fraudulently shipped, shall likewise be confiscated.

No consignee shall despatch a vessel outward without her being first visited and examined, under a penalty of one thousand dollars, which shall be exacted in the first instance; and for a second or future infringements, an action shall be brought against him.

Should the captain or supercargo not have wherewith to satisfy such fines imposed on him, and costs, the vessel shall be seized for the purpose, unless the consignee comes forward as security.

On and after the 1st day of January, 1844, the following regulations will be observed in all the custom-houses of the island of Cuba:—

1st. Every box of sugar, exported in a Spanish vessel, shall pay 5 rials, (62½ cents;) and in a foreign vessel 6 rials, (75 cents,) export duty.

2d. Every quintal of coffee, exported in a Spanish vessel, for a Spanish port, shall pay 3 rials, (37½ cents;) in a Spanish vessel, for a foreign port, 4 rials, (50 cents;) and in a foreign vessel, for a foreign port, 4½ rials, (56¼ cents,) export duty.

3d. Molasses and rum shall pay no export duty.

4th. Vessels that take a full cargo of molasses, shall pay no tonnage duty.

5th. Foreign vessels that take more than 1,000 boxes of sugar, shall pay but 6 rials (75 cents) per ton, as tonnage dues. Spanish vessels, but 2½ rials, (31¼ cents.)

6th. The same advantage, as named in the fifth article, shall be enjoyed by vessels that take more than 2,000 bags coffee, or 300 pipes pure rum.

This is a very important movement as regards shipping; as it virtually reduces the tonnage duty, formerly $1 50 per ton, to 75 cents per ton, on all vessels carrying more than 1,000 boxes, or on nearly all American shipping that comes to this port.

HARBOR REGULATIONS OF THE PORT OF HAVANA.

1. No vessel shall haul from one point to another without first obtaining permission from the captain of the port; and the hauling must be done between sunset and nine o'clock of the next morning, under the penalty of fifty dollars, it being understood that this rule has no reference to vessels arriving, which shall be governed by rule 2, 13, and 14. Neither shall any vessel pass the shoals into the inner part of the harbor without a pilot—if so done, pilotage shall be paid the same as if she took one.

2. As soon as the vessel is anchored, and her sails furled, she shall haul over to the eastern shore, in order to leave the channel free—hauling by the other vessels until she arrives at her anchorage. This rule is more urgent in case the vessel, from scant wind, has anchored in the narrowest part of the channel; in which case, she must be removed at once—and any captain who shall not do so upon being ordered, shall pay the pilot and his crew for hauling the vessel to her anchorage. The captain, on landing, must present himself to the captain of the port.

3. The captain of any vessel bringing powder, shall report the amount to the captain of the port for the order of deposit; and any one that shall make any concealment shall pay a fine of eighty dollars—it being observed that some captains, in order to improve opportunities of hauling to the wharf, and others under pretence of having but a small quantity, neglect to do so. Neither shall any one fire cannon, or discharge fire-arms in the port, without the knowledge of the captain of the port, and permission from the commandant-general of the station.

4. All vessels will put out their caboose fires at sunset, be they at the wharf or in the stream. The cabin light may be maintained until gun fire.

5. No vessel shall receive or discharge ballast without written permission from the captain of the port; neither shall any straw, sand, or dirt, be thrown into the water, under penalty of fifty dollars; neither shall any tar, pitch, or other combustible substance, be heated on board any vessel, under penalty of one hundred dollars.

6. All orders communicated to captains of vessels by the pilots must be obeyed, as they emanate from the captain of the port.

7. In case any vessel should break adrift, and be in danger of stranding, or being lost or injured through bad weather, or other accident, it is incumbent upon the masters of all other vessels to render all assistance in their power; and in case of refusal, such master shall pay for all damage caused by his neglect.

8. It is necessary that masters of vessels, on anchoring, should take particular care not to overlay the chains or anchors of another vessel, otherwise he shall be responsible for all damage caused by his carelessness.

9. No vessel shall sail from the port before sunrise, nor after sunset, as it is necessary that they should be visited on departing.

10. In case any vessel requires to be caulked, careened, or smoked, before being done, permission must be obtained from the captain of the port; and in no case must it be done at the wharf, as there are several places proper for these purposes, where vessels can be repaired without prejudice to the port, and the master can select that which best pleases him.

11. No vessel will haul to the wharf without permission from the collector, and in no case will they make fast to those already alongside the wharf, under penalty of fifty dollars, and paying for all damage that may be occasioned by being so fast, especially in case of bad weather or fire, when it may be necessary to haul out from the wharf, and be delayed in consequence of vessels being fast to them. Before hauling to the wharf, all vessels shall strike their top-gallant yards and masts, top the fore and main yards, run in the main and jib booms, and cockbill the anchors, so as to avoid damaging other vessels. Every vessel must be at least a foot and a half from others. With these precautions, vessels will be able to haul out, in case of fire, without those accidents so often noted; and in case of bad weather will not injure one another.

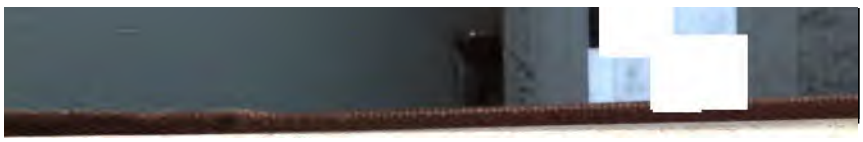
12. No vessel will moor alongside the wharf, but along the shore of Casa Blanca, leaving clear the space from the north corner of Marti's wharf to the northwest angle of the royal stores at Casa Blanca, for the passage to and from the Cabana, avoiding to anchor nearer to the men-of-war than a cable's length.

13. No vessel shall make fast to any of the buoys that are placed on the shoals in the harbor, under penalty of one hundred dollars, and all damages and expenses that may be caused by displacing the buoy.

14. In case of fire on board any vessel in the harbor, all masters are required to repair to the burning vessel with their boats, provided with warps, buckets, and everything that they may judge serviceable, and also water-engines, such as may have them, in order to assist to extinguish the flames. The captain of the port trusts that this article will be faithfully attended to.

15. Should any master of a vessel need a launch, he can procure such as may suit him, but he will advise the captain of the port, in order that she may be examined, as prescribed by law; and any one that shall load a launch without leaving two inches of the wales out of water, shall incur a penalty of twenty dollars.

16. In case of disorder on board any vessel among the seamen, late at night, the master can apply to the guard-ship for assistance until morning, when he will apply to his consul for a written request to the captain of the port, for the imprisonment of the delinquents. *No* vessel shall discharge a seaman without permission from the consul.



17. The day before leaving port, masters will call at the captain of the port's office, where they will receive an order for their powder, in case they had any deposited.

18. It is prohibited to sail about the harbor, in boats, after the eight o'clock gun; and any person arrested for violating this law will be taken on board the flag-ship, where he will remain at the disposition of the admiral.*

19. As a protection against desertion, and to impede the decoying of men from one ship to another, a shipping master has been appointed for the port, who only is authorized to take cognizance of the shipping of men on board of vessels in this port. To this shipping master it is prohibited to ship any man, until he is well assured that such man has been legally discharged from the vessel in which he arrived at this port, and with the knowledge and consent of the consul of the nation to which such vessel belongs. Masters of vessels can make their own contracts with seamen that have been legally discharged; but on no pretext, whatever, shall any seaman be employed on board any vessel in this harbor, unless he has been legitimately shipped before said shipping master, and it has been made known by the shipping master, and the captain of the vessel, to the consul of the nation to which such vessel belongs. If any master of a vessel shall receive or employ any seaman, in contravention of the foregoing regulations, he shall incur a penalty of fifty dollars for every seaman so received on board, which penalty shall be duplicated in every case of finding men illegally on board a vessel, after having been cleared at the custom-house.

It is the duty of the shipping master, Mr. Daniel Warren, to observe these rules, and to report any infraction thereof to the captain of the port, for the enforcing of the penalty.

20. The carrying of concealed arms being prohibited by the laws of the country, under pain of six years imprisonment, the penalty will be enforced on any one that may be found on shore with pointed knives, pistols, or other prohibited arms; and it is charged upon all masters of vessels that they observe that their men respect this law.

21. Every master of a vessel will hoist his national flag when the flag-ship hoists hers, whether it be for a festival or other cause; and on leaving his vessel, will leave it charged upon his officers.

22. Masters of vessels will receive a copy of these rules from the boarding adjutant.

NOTE.—Vessels touching at this port in ballast, or with cargo, to try the market, or procure supplies, will be quarantined if the bill of health is not certified by the Spanish consul at the port of departure; but they can communicate with the city by letter, which will be taken by the health officer, and answers returned by the same conveyance; and can receive their supplies and clear while in quarantine. If they do not break bulk, the charge for tonnage dues will not be incurred, and the total expense will not amount to more than $110, for a vessel of 200 tons; the charge of 1¾ rials per ton, for the mud machine, being the principal expense. Vessels in ballast can clear, and remain in port as long as they please afterwards; and, should they then take cargo, the expense for re-entry is very light.

POLICE REGULATIONS OF HAVANA.

No one will be allowed to disembark on the island without a passport, except in case of inevitable loss of papers by shipwreck, capture, or other similar cause, and the presentation of a bondsman, who will answer to the authorities for the term of one year, and present him, should he be demanded.

Passengers from foreign ports should have their passports certified by the Spanish consul.

No master of a vessel will receive on board any passenger, to convey from one point to another, without a passport, under penalty of twenty-five dollars.

* The limit in the *eighteenth rule, respecting* boats in the harbor after night-fall, has been *extended by the commandant of marines* until eleven o'clock.

Any person that receives a slave on board any vessel, to be conveyed from one point to another, without permission from the master of a slave, shall incur a penalty of fifty dollars, without prejudice to any action at law that may be brought against him therefor.

No master of a vessel will receive on board any deserting soldier or sailor, under the pains and penalties prescribed in the military code.

All colored persons, slaves or free, that arrive from foreign countries, shall be sent immediately to a deposit, prepared by the government for that purpose, where they shall remain until the moment of leaving the island; or they can remain on board the vessel, provided the consignee will give a bond for one thousand dollars, to be forfeited in case they leave her, which bond shall not be cancelled until the return of the boarding officer, on the departure of the vessel.

Purchases made from slaves or servants shall be forfeited, and the purchaser punished as he may deserve. The same is understood of purchases of soldiers, unless it be some article of their own manufacture, or made with the intervention of an officer.

No person shall make, sell, purchase, or carry, under the penalties assigned by law, any of the following weapons:—Pistols of all classes; muskets or carbines, less than four palms in the barrel; gun or pistol-canes, of any kind; sword-canes, nor any cane with a concealed blade of any kind; dirks or daggers of any kind less than four hands in the blade; knives with spring backs, or any other contrivance to fix the blade when open; bayonet, without the gun; nor any pointed knife, great or small, of any kind.

Much complaint having been made of the injury sustained from the owners of eating and liquor shops, who, together with their assistants, insidiously entice and entrap the crews of foreign vessels, on the plea of being their countrymen, and the identity of language, which induces them to join their meetings, where they suggest to them the idea of leaving their vessels, as also of claiming the wages they suppose due, holding out to them the prospect of new and more lucrative voyages, these inveiglers having no other interest than to make the sailors pass the night at their houses, causing them a daily expense on trust, which is increased by fraud and intoxication, in order to be claimed afterwards of the masters or consignees of the vessels to which they belong—it is ordered that the owners of such establishments, and boarding-house keepers, shall not admit them into their houses, nor give them any thing on trust, much less allow them to pass the night there, without written consent of the masters of their respective vessels, under pain of forfeiture of what they may supply them, and all damages that may arise from the concealment and detention of mariners.

[This law has been amended by the imposition of a fine of twenty-four dollars on any boarding-house keeper that shall keep a sailor over night without permission, over and above the forfeiture above named.]

TARIFF—DUTY ON COCOA NUTS.

J. W. M'Culloch, comptroller at the treasury department, has addressed a letter to the collector of customs for the district of New York, under date "Treasury Department, Comptroller's Office, April 15th, 1844," as follows:—

"Sir—It has been represented to this office that upon an importation of cocoa nuts at your district, duty has been charged at the rate of 20 per cent ad valorem; but, as upon this article, like other nuts not used in dyeing, duty should be charged at the rate of one cent per lb., you will in future collect that rate of duty upon it, under the second clause of the eighth section of the tariff.* The weight of cocoa nuts upon which duty should be levied, must include the shell, but not that of the husks, or outer covering."

* The words are these:—"On all nuts not specified, except those used for dyeing, one *cent per pound.*"

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

COTTON TRADE OF TRIESTE, AUSTRIA.

Importations of Cotton, and Average Prices at Trieste.

The American cotton imported into Trieste is mostly consumed in the interior of Austria. Some, however, is sent to Switzerland, and likewise to Venetian Lombardy; but probably, before long, the importations for the supply of Venetian Lombardy and of Switzerland will be made direct to Venice from the United States, by a commercial company, which has been lately established at Venice, under the authority of the Austrian government. The direct importations of cotton from the United States into Trieste, during 1842, were much interfered with by importations of nearly an equal amount from Liverpool, Havre, and Marseilles. 29,400 bales were, however, disposed of between the commencement of the year and the 21st of November, at which period the stock on hand of American cotton was 21,000 bales, with an extremely dull market. The usual quality of the Mako cotton is considered superior to the American, with the exception of Sea Island, and the finest Louisiana. There is a superior quality of Mako cotton, which ranks between the finest Louisiana and the Sea Island. Much of the Egyptian cotton, for the manufactures of the interior of Germany, not only of Austria, but of Zoll-Verein, is supplied from Trieste. Large quantities are also sent to Switzerland. So long as the monopoly on tobacco continues, there is but one principal article of the produce of the United States (viz: cotton) which can enter into a direct commerce with Trieste. In 1835, cotton first become an article of importation, and 322 bales were received at Trieste, from the United States. The quantity imported from the United States has continued to increase, as will be seen from the table below, compiled from authentic tabular statements politely furnished the editor of this Magazine, by J. George Harris, Esq., late of the United States Tobacco Agency in Europe:—

Imports of Cotton into Trieste, from 1815 to 1839, inclusive.

Years.	Bales from U. S.	Bales from Brazil.	Bales from India.	Bales from Egypt.	Bales from Malta & Sicily.	Bales from Levant.	Tot. bales.
1815,.....	322	431	60	1,333	390	12,036	14,572
1816,.....	434	1,066	49	3,541	1,867	26,814	33,773
1817,.....	1,973	1,057	46	758	1,590	13,947	19,371
1818,.....	217	518	912	2,834	1,684	6,559	12,724
1819,.....	737	1,268	2,785	3,189	2,728	12,627	23,334
1820,.....	431	439	1,121	3,148	4,693	12,864	22,696
1821,.....	679	1,186	30	4,320	2,236	15,337	23,788
1822,.....	838	1,306	754	6,843	1,126	20,894	31,761
1823,.....	1,550	3,934	129	13,569	1,552	12,026	32,760
1824,.....	144	207	....	17,798	1,247	7,698	27,094
1825,.....	170	....	....	9,312	3,682	17,301	30,463
1826,.....	3,271	48	2,065	18,206	1,651	8,015	33,256
1827,.....	3,802	200	552	16,916	932	7,570	29,972
1828,.....	4,078	437	545	26,985	807	7,338	40,090
1829,.....	17,748	5,742	2,217	5,203	240	9,289	40,439
1830,.....	7,111	6,760	780	23,470	69	4,232	42,422
1831,.....	7,729	6,089	205	47,529	47	9,997	66,196
1832,.....	6,762	3,307	143	49,980	1,165	28,634	89,991
1833,.....	4,940	3,803	....	43,166	3,689	9,340	64,938
1834,.....	13,478	2,437	....	17,855	780	19,957	54,537
1835,.....	17,892	3,761	1,056	30,443	2,293	25,231	80,676
1836,.....	23,450	2,414	1,687	48,807	2,494	48,046	126,898
1837,.....	20,871	876	797	48,944	912	23,137	95,537
1838,.....	20,702	2,576	13	54,701	89	29,976	108,057
1839,.....	18,030	6,175	224	19,535	1,785	39,971	85,720
Total,..	*177,359*	*56,037*	*16,170*	518,415	39,748	428,936	1,231,065

AVERAGE PRICES OF COTTON AT TRIESTE, FROM 1815 TO 1839.

Years.	U. States. Florins.	Brazil. Florins.	India. Florins.	Levant. Florins.	Egypt. Florins.	Malta and Sicily. Florins.
1815,...	... a ...	120 a 155	81 a 140	79 a 96	65 a 88	... a ...
1816,...	95 a 110	128 a 155	80 a 85	74 a 96	54 a 82	65 a 115
1817,...	86 a 98	105 a 136	56 a 65	64 a 85	51 a 60	56 a 111
1818,...	95 a ...	112 a 135	55 a 65	60 a 90	40 a 55	50 a 115
1819,...	86 a ...	88 a 130	32 a 65	47 a 88	26 a 43	57 a 115
1820,...	62 a 68	75 a 96	32 a 42	34 a 56	25 a 33	57 a 62
1821,...	55 a 62	65 a 80	29 a 36	34 a 57	25 a 34	52 a 62
1822,...	37 a 56	60 a 70	28 a 34	30 a 52	28 a 36	38 a 55
1823,...	39 a 56	52 a 70	27 a 31	28 a 46	26 a 35	40 a 52
1824,...	38 a 44	50 a 56	27 a 28	27 a 43	23 a 33	42 a 55
1825,...	... a ...	... a ...	... a ...	34 a 75	27 a 60	46 a 90
1826,...	41 a 42	55 a ...	29 a 35	35 a 47	25 a 44	42 a 59
1827,...	35 a 39	48 a ...	28 a 34	30 a 42	26 a 31	33 a 40
1828,...	34 a 40	42 a 48	24 a 34	26 a 39	26 a 30	34 a 36
1829,...	31 a 36	37 a 43	22 a 28	27 a 38	27 a 30	35 a 38
1830,...	33 a 37	37 a 42	22 a 30	28 a 36	26 a 28	34 a 36
1831,...	32 a 34	33 a 39	27 a 28	27 a 34	37 a 28	35 a 36
1832,...	33 a 37	33 a 42	21 a 22	25 a 32	23 a 25	35 a 36
1833,...	38 a 54	42 a 65	24 a 25	28 a 50	36 a ...	35 a 60
1834,...	44 a 54	46 a 65	28 a 30	32 a 47	34 a 37	41 a 51
1835,...	50 a 63	43 a 72½	41 a 44	36 a 53	36 a 47	42 a 63
1836,...	42 a 65	58 a 65	40 a 44	31 a 50	36 a 38	43 a 55
1837,...	31 a 54	37 a 48	24 a 30	20 a 42	... a ...	31 a 47
1838,...	32 a 39	35 a 50	21 a 26	20 a 32	... a ...	33 a 35
1839,...	37 a 50	36 a 51	22 a 28	18 a 30	... a ...	34 a 45

The foregoing prices are quoted in florins, and for 100 lbs. of Austria, equal to 123½ lbs. avoirdupois. The florin is worth 48½ cents, United States currency.

Mr. Harris says that Brazilian cotton, which formerly commanded in the Austrian market one-third more than American, now sells at the same price; the only sort that brings a better price than our common qualities being a small proportion of the very finest of the Egyptian, which stands to the main crop in a relation similar to that which the Sea Island stands to the crop of the United States. The current commercial tables of Trieste, annually published, (and for which we are indebted to Mr. Harris for a series,) show a gradual and increased demand for our cotton, together with a corresponding increase of comparative prices, while there has been a slow and constant decline in the demand and price for that of other countries. In 1843, a larger quantity, however, of the Egyptian cotton, found a market at Trieste, than in any one year previous; but, under existing circumstances, this is no indication of the active demand; "for it is," adds Mr. Harris, "a well known fact there, that the crop of the previous year was forced into market by the Pacha, at numerical prices, in consequence of the severe pressure which he experienced in money matters."

EXPORTS FROM GREAT BRITAIN TO THE BRAZILS.

The gross amount of English and Irish produce exported to the Brazils, was—

In 1841,.....	£2,556,554	In 1843,.....	£2,140,127
1842,.....	1,756,805		

In the latter year, the leading articles exported were as follows:—

Cotton goods,.....	£1,096,669	Linens,.....	£154,323
Hardware,.....	80,070	Woollens,.....	278,171
Iron and copper,.....	36,815	Arms,.....	18,155
Haberdashery,.....	20,282	Earthenware,.....	46,611
Glass,.....	27,637	Leather goods,.....	23,309
Silks,.....	30,403	Tin, &c.,.....	11,108

PRICES OF SUNDRY ARTICLES OF IRON AT PHILADELPHIA.

List of Articles.	1841. January.	1842. January.	1843. January.	1844. January.
Iron screws,.....	20 per cent.	22½ per cent.	27½ per cent.	30 per cent.
Sad irons,.....	5¼ cents.	5 cents.	4½ cents.	3½ cents.
Axes,.....	$15 to $16	$14 to $16	$12 to $14	$11 to $13
Grass scythes,.....	9 50	9 50	8 to 9	8 to 9
Corn scythes,.....	13 00	13 00	11 to 12	11 to 12
Cut nails,.....	5 25	5 00	4 00	4 to 4 25
Shovels and spades,	6 to 7 50	6 to 7 50	5 50 to 7 50	5 to 7 25
Hollow-ware,.....	67 50	62 50	57 50	55 00
Mill saws,.....	70 cents.	70 cents.	70 cents.	65 cents.
Cross-cut saws,....	38½ "	38½ "	38½ "	35½ "
Cast steel,.....	16½ & 17 "	17 "	16 to 17 "	15 "
Shear steel,.....	14½ to 17 "	15 to 17 "	14 to 17 "	14 to 15 "
Eng. common iron,	$75 to $80	$65 to $70	$60 to $65	$60 to $62 50
Eng. refined iron,..	85 to 90	80 to 85	75 to 80	72 50 to 77 50
Amer. boiler iron,.	5½ to 6 cents.	5½ to 6 cents.	5 to 5½ cents.	5 to 5½ cents.
Pig iron, ...	$30 to $32 50	$30 to $32½	$24 to $26	$26 to $28

PRICES OF MOLASSES AT BOSTON AND NEW YORK,

FROM 1795 TO 1843, INCLUSIVE.

Year.	Price.	Year.	Price.	Year.	Price.
1795, per gall.	60 cts.	1812, per gall.	52 cts.	1828, per gall.	30 cts.
1796, "	62	1813, "	75	1829, "	30
1797, "	68	1814, "	85	1830, "	25
1798, "	56	1815, "	75	1831, "	27
1799, "	50	1816, "	57	1832, "	27
1800, "	48	1817, "	53	1833, "	32
1801, "	56	1818, "	54	1834, "	31
1802, "	36	1819, "	50	1835, "	38
1803, "	42	1820, "	34	1836, "	38
1804, "	51	1821, "	28	1837, "	35
1805, "	40	1822, "	32	1838, "	37
1806, "	38	1823, "	28	1839, "	34
1807, "	41	1824, "	27	1840, "	26
1808, "	50	1825, "	28	1841, "	25
1809, "	52	1826, "	28	1842, "	18
1810, "	48	1827, "	33	1843, "	23
1811, "	54				

PRICES OF SALT AT BOSTON,

FROM 1795 TO 1843, INCLUSIVE, PER BUSHEL.

Year.	Price.	Year.	Price.	Year.	Price.
1795,.....	77 cts.	1812,.....	61 cts.	1828,.....	48 cts.
1796,.....	56	1813,.....	66	1829,.....	50
1797,.....	47	1814,.....	72	1830,.....	44
1798,.....	69	1815,.....	79	1831,.....	46
1799,.....	61	1816,.....	70	1832,.....	51
1800,.....	61	1817,.....	56	1833,.....	38
1801,.....	75	1818,.....	58	1834,.....	39
1802,.....	64	1819,.....	64	1835,.....	34
1803,.....	56	1820,.....	58	1836,.....	36
1804,.....	78	1821,.....	52	1837,.....	38
1805,.....	72	1822,.....	58	1838,.....	37
1806,.....	57	1823,.....	54	1839,.....	36
1807,.....	64	1824,.....	50	1840,.....	34
1808,.....	68	1825,.....	50	1841,.....	35
1809,.....	50	1826,.....	44	1842,.....	28
1810,.....	44	1827,.....	47	1843,.....	23
1811,.....	57				

PRICES OF DIFFERENT ARTICLES OF IRON, AT NEW YORK,

FROM THE YEAR 1840 TO 1844, INCLUSIVE.

Articles.	Jan. 1840.	Jan. 1841.	Jan. 1842.	Jan. 1843.	Jan. 1844.
Iron anvils, per lb.,.....cents	9½	9½	8½	8½	8½
Bars, common English rolled,.....per ton	$76½	$71½	$52½	$53½	$53½
Bars, refined English rolled,.....	93½	87½	76½	67½	67½
Bars, American refined,.....	90	85	77½	65	67½
Bars, Swedes hammered,.....	91½	86½	81½	77½	72½
Blooms, American,.....	60	52½	50	47½	52½
Hoops, from ½ to 3 inches wide,.....	141½	113	113	108½	105
Nails, wrought, per lb.,.....cents	11½	11½	10½	9	9
Nails, cut, per lb.,.....	5½	5½	5½	3½	4½
Nail rods, slit,.....per ton	$115	$111½	$106½	$95	$95
Pigs,.....	35½	32½	31	25	27½
Brazier's rods, of 3-16 to 8-16 of an inch,.....	131	107	107	82½	87½
Sheets, average thickness, per lb.,.....cents	5½	5½	5	5	4½
Scythes,.....per dozen	$13	$12½	$12½	$9	$9
Shovels,.....	10	9½	9	7½	7½
Rolled for bands, from ½X½ to 4X½,...per ton	122	99½	99½	77½	82½
Spikes, per lb.,.....cents	8	6½	6½	6	6
Tacks, 2½ to 16 oz. to the M.,.....	7½	7½	7½	5	4½
Tacks, exceeding 16 oz. to the M.,.....	15	15	15	10	10
Brads, from ½ to 2 inches, per M.,.....	13	13	13	7	7
Wire, not exceeding No. 14, per lb.,.....	8	7½	7½	6½	6½
Wire, exceeding No. 14, per lb.,.....	18½	18½	17½	12	12
Axes, heavy,.....per dozen	$18	$17½	$15½	$13½	$13

PRICES OF GLASSWARE, AT BOSTON AND NEW YORK,

AT THE PRICES MENTIONED BELOW.

Dec. 1841.	Aug. 1842.	Dec. 1842.	Aug. 1843.	Dec. 1843.	Article.
$2 25 doz.	$2 00 doz.	$2 00 doz.	$1 80	$1 58	Pint 8 flute tumblers.
1 12	1 00	1 00	75	58	Gill 6 "
1 25	1 25	1 12	90	81	Pillar ½ pt. tumblers.
1 35	1 35	1 12	1 00	95	Taper bar "
1 35	1 35	1 35	1 12	1 00	9 flute "
80	68	68	51	50	Pillar gill "
1 20	1 12	1 00	90	68	½ pt. 8 flute "
2 00	1 80	1 80	1 68	1 35	½ pt. 6 flute "
2 00	1 80	1 80	1 70	1 40	½ pt. 8 flute "
2 25	2 00	2 00	1 80	1 35	Tulip salt.
90	90	90	90	68	Sqr. salt.
2 25	2 00	2 00	1 80	1 68	7 in. dish.
1 68	68	58	58	45	Gothic salt.
00	1 00	90	68	53	6 flute salt.
52	52	50	45	38	Dish salt.
1 80	1 80	1 80	1 70	1 35	Lamp ——.
40	40	38	36	36	4 oz. tumbler.
60	60	58	52	52	6 oz. "
1 20	1 12	90	90	81	8 oz. flint tumbler.
1 58	1 50	1 35	1 20	1 12	Night lamp.
1 00	1 00	90	80	72	Peg lamp.
6 75	6 75	6 00	4 50	3 60	Sqr. sugar.

COMMERCE OF HONOLULU, IN 1843.

The imports into Honolulu, (Sandwich Islands,) for year ending Dec. 31, 1843, were—

Imports in	American	vessels,....	$158,106	Duty paid on imp. in	Amer.	vessels,	$4,743
"	English	"	43,627	" "	English	"	1,308
"	French	"	15,062	" "	French	"	451
"	Spanish	"	4,559	" "	Spanish	"	136
"	German	"	2,626	" "	German	"	60
Total,.....			$223,380	Total,.....			$6,698

NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

INVENTION OF NAVIGATION AND MARINE IMPLEMENTS, IN 1843.

Appended to the annual report of Mr. Ellsworth, the commissioner of patents, is a list of patents granted in the year 1843, with the names of patentees, residence, &c., together with a list of patents expired in 1843. The list of patents is arranged under twenty-two distinct classifications. The seventh comes under the head of "Navigation and Maritime Implements," comprising all vessels for conveyance on water, their construction, rigging, and propulsion; diving dresses, life-preservers, &c. We give the list under this head for the benefit of those of our readers engaged in navigation and maritime affairs, as follows:—1. Constructing canal-boats, so that they can be transported on railroad cars; patented by John Dougherty, of Philadelphia, Pa. 2. Constructing steamboats, &c., to prevent them from sinking when coming in collision; by Horace D. Forbes, New York city. 3. Fender to protect boats against injury from snags and sawyers; by Joseph W. Kirk, Philadelphia, Pa. 4. Life-boats; by Lewis Raymond, New York city. 5. Life-preservers, for the use of steamboats, &c.; by Michael Pearson, Newburyport, Mass. 6. Propelling boats; by James H. Street, Philadelphia, Pa. 7. Propelling vessels by the buoyancy of air, &c.; by Sylvester W. Hall, of Troy, N. Y. 8. Propelling vessels by means of continuous streams of water; by Robert S. Schuyler, of New York city. 9. Propelling vessels, paddles, endless chain; by Beriah Douglass, Albany, N. Y. 10. Propelling vessels by steam, horizontal shifting paddle; by Horace Everett, of Windsor, Vt. 11. Steamboats—bail wheel for raising water from the hold of; by Horace D. Forbes, of New York city. 12. Steamboats—preventing from sinking; by Samuel G. Muckles, of New York city. 13. Representation of tides and currents; by Benjamin F. Watts, of Fort Gaines, Ga. 14. Vessels—ascertaining centre of gravity, &c.; by John Hebday, of Portsmouth, Va. 15. Connecting tiller with the rudder-head of vessels.

PORT OF DUNKERQUE, FRANCE.

Salomer, Senior, ship-broker, and translator of the English language at Dunkerque, has published the following note for the purpose of dissipating the fears which the American shipmasters might have felt, who should be disposed to visit that port, which is now, and by just title, considered one of the principal ports of France, from the great number of American vessels which arrive there, and the progressive increase of the custom duties; which, in 1839, amounted to 10,000,000 francs. The correctness of the statement is certified to by the masters of six American ships:—

"From the report of all the American masters who know Dunquerke, it seems that the general opinion in the United States is, that this port is considered as a small place for fishermen, and incapable of admitting with safety any large vessels. As a ship-broker, I deem it my duty to eradicate this erroneous opinion, and to signalize the real importance of Dunquerke. The 1st of May, 1839, it was ascertained by a commission, composed of the sub-prefect, of the mayor, of the chief engineer, of the master pilot, and of the members of the chamber of commerce, that, since the extension of the moles to low water mark, there is now 15 feet inside, in the still water, and 20 feet outside, in the rough water, French measure—say about 22 feet, English. Dunkerque has a fine basin, where, before 1814, and when it was a naval port, the frigates of the royal navy were alone admitted. This basin is now open to merchantmen. The length of the moles is about two miles, (say two-thirds of a league.) There is a light-house, several ship-yards, a pontoon, a careening place, and a stone quay, of 5,500 feet in length. A pilot-boat cruises constantly off Gravelines. 30,000 souls of population."

The following particulars of the port of Dunkerque emanate from the Bureau of Messieurs the officers of the port:—

"1,500 to 2,000 vessels enter annually in the port of Dunkerque. At full moon, they measure at the bar 7 metres *(22¾ feet) of water*, and at quarter moon 5 metres, (16½ feet)

At Havre, they measure only 5 metres and 50 or 60 centimetres—about 15 to 17 feet. The entrance at our port is easier than at Havre, where, when a vessel touches, she is almost invariably lost. The same tide carries a ship, with a favorable wind, to the Naval basin, (*Bassin de la Marine,*) and out again to sea, when she wishes to sail. It is thus that American vessels, loaded, and drawing from 17 to 19 feet, enter the basin. In all seasons, two pilot-boats lie in the stream, and furnish pilots to the ships entering the harbor."

A captain of the merchant service, of thirty years' sailing, says:—

"There is provided for our port three pilot-boats, well manned. Two cruise, without intermission, to the north of the country, for all ships coming from the main sea; the third cruises to the west of the port, and is nearly always found off Gravelines, outside the banks. Every vessel, of no matter what draught of water, can approach to find her, without the least apprehension. A ship of 600 or 700 tons, drawing even 14 and 15½ feet of water, can enter into our port two days before the new or full moon, and three days after the new or full moon. There is wanted for that, the wind from the W. N. W., which is necessary to come from the English channel. If, for example, the wind was N. E., or even E., it would make, perhaps, less depth, but there would be then more sea; for with those winds the sea runs higher, which does not happen when the wind is W., and W. S. W. The situation of our port finds itself N. N. W. and S. S. E. Once near, the entrance is easy; once headed in, you immediately find there the means to make fast the vessel's entering; yawls well manned to carry the tow-lines, and always haulers, in case the wind should refuse an entrance. The channel is straight, and very deep, bottom muddy. If a ship cannot enter into the basin with the same tide, which might happen from high winds from the W. and S. W., there are found places for standing or berths by the quay, in front of the Bureau of Inspection, (the deepest part of the harbor, with soft, muddy bottom,) or in front of the *Rue des Arbres*, (Free street,) where every vessel can lie without the least strain."

LAW OF NEW YORK RESPECTING HOSPITAL MONEY.

The following is an authentic copy of an act passed by the legislature of New York, May 7th, 1844, entitled "An act to amend the Revised Statutes in relation to the Marine Hospital and its Funds," passed April 1, 1843:—

Sec. 1. The first section of the act entitled "An act to amend the Revised Statutes in relation to the Marine Hospital and its Funds," passed April 18th, 1843, is hereby amended, so as to read as follows:—From the master of every vessel from a foreign port, for himself, one dollar and fifty cents; and for every cabin passenger, two dollars; for each steerage passenger, fifty cents; and for each mate and sailor, fifty cents.

Sec. 2. Whenever the health commissioner shall collect and receive any money under protest or notice on the part of the payer of an intention to contest the right of the state to such moneys, it shall be his duty to pay the moneys so received into the treasury of this state, making, at the same time, and delivering to the treasurer, a written statement of the circumstances under which the same was received, and the objections made by the payer.

Sec. 3. It shall be the duty of the comptroller, whenever it is ascertained and established, by the judgment and decree of a competent court, that the moneys so received into the treasury, under protest, have been illegally collected, and do not belong to the state, to draw his warrant on the treasurer for such moneys, in favor of the party entitled thereto.

Sec. 4. The health commissioner who shall pay into the treasury of this state public moneys collected by him under protest, shall be saved harmless against the consequences of any action brought against him for the recovery of moneys so received and paid: *Provided*, That such health commissioner shall, within five days, give notice to the comptroller and attorney general of any suit brought against him for the recovery of moneys paid under protest, and shall submit the management of the suit to the attorney general; and all costs and charges connected with the defence of said suit shall be paid from the treasury, in the same manner as if the suit was against the people of the state.

Sec. 5. The moneys collected by the late commissioner, under protest, shall be paid into the treasury; and the two preceding sections shall apply to him and the moneys thus paid into the treasury.

Sec. 6. Title one, of part one, of chapter fourteen, section twelve, of the Revised Statutes, is hereby amended, so as to read as follows:—The resident physician shall receive an annual salary of twelve hundred and fifty dollars, to be paid out of the moneys appropriated to the use of the marine hospital.

Sec. 7. The health officer shall, annually, on or before the 1st of January, report to the *comptroller, under oath*, the receipts and expenditures of the marine hospital; together *with all the receipts and* perquisites of his office, and the items connected therewith.

THE BOOK TRADE.

1.—*Observations, Principally in France and Great Britain.* By JOHN P. DURBIN, D. D., President of Dickinson College. 2 vols. 12mo., pp. 308 and 312. New York: Harper & Brothers.

These volumes furnish an interesting and well written account of the author's tour in Europe, with some notices of the most prominent topics of interest at present attracting the attention of the world. The opinions expressed on several important subjects differ from those that are current among us; and Dr. Durbin confesses that they are at variance with those he entertained before he visited the old world. This was very natural, and is an evidence of a candid and unprejudiced mind. A portion of the second volume is occupied with an account of Wesleyan Methodism in England. Methodists will not, of course, object to it; and others, who take an interest in the progress of religion and of human society, will not be unwilling to learn something of so powerful an agency. The observations on the evils and abuses that forced themselves upon the attention of Dr. D., are made in a liberal and catholic spirit, with a truly American feeling; without, however, being either anti-French or anti-English.

2.—*The Poems and Ballads of Schiller.* Translated by Sir EDWARD LYTTON BULWER, Bart. With a Brief Sketch of the Author's Life. 12mo., pp. 424. New York: Harper & Brothers.

There have been many translations of detached poems by Schiller. This, however, with very "trivial exceptions," includes the whole collection, so remarkable for the rich variety it embraces, and the noble mind it reflects. The reader is here invited to a survey of the whole of those poems in which Schiller has developed the flower of every faculty he possessed—the fruit of every study he pursued. The object of the translator has been to adhere with as much fidelity to the original as the necessity of construing poetry into poetry will permit; and, as a whole, he believes that there are few translations of poems, equally numerous and diversified, in which loyalty and allegiance to the sense of the original have been so sedulously rendered. The poems are introduced by a comprehensive outline of the life of Schiller, which is replete with interest and instruction.

3.—*Critical and Miscellaneous Essays.* By T. BABINGTON MACAULAY. Vol. V. Philadelphia: Carey & Hart.

The present volume, just issued from the Philadelphia press, is printed and bound to match the four volumes previously published. It contains eight of the author's masterly essays, which have appeared at intervals in the Edinburgh Review, from 1829 to 1843; and embraces critical notices of the life and writings of Madame d'Arblay, Addison, Barere's Memoirs, Montgomery's Poems, Civil Disabilities of the Jews, Mills's Essay on Government, &c. Macaulay is regarded as the first critical and historical essayist of our time. "His style is classical," says Horne, in his New Spirit of the Age, "because it is correct; and it is popular, because it must be intelligible to every educated understanding." No scholar's library can be complete without these "Miscellanies."

4.—*Girlhood and Womanhood; or, Sketches of my Schoolmates.* By Mrs. A. G. GRAVES, author of "Woman in America." Boston: T. H. Carter & Co.

The schoolmates of the author, under the various shades of character and circumstances while at school, and in all the after events of domestic life, seem to be sketched with fidelity. Its pictures are drawn from human nature as it is found, and not from any ideal representation of what it may become. It exhibits different varieties of female character, as seen in girlhood, following them to their full development in womanhood, in order to prove the natural connection that exists between these important periods. "As the girl is, the woman will be, unless some powerful counteraction has intervened," is the great truth it illustrates.

5.—*An Elementary Treatise on the Structure and Operations of the National and State Governments of the United States.* By CHARLES MASON, A. M., Counsellor at Law. Boston: James Munroe & Co.

We have never met with a work so well adapted to the object for which it was designed. It exhibits, in a clear and comprehensive form, a summary account of the forms and modes of administration of our national and state governments, that must render it useful for schools, academies, and indeed for all classes of society. Avoiding all general disquisition, Mr. Mason presents an exact statement of the actual construction of our political and civil institutions, in all their various branches, and of the processes and means by which they are, in fact, conducted and sustained. It, in short, contains information upon matters relating to government and civil polity, with which every person, living under a free government, ought to have at least some general acquaintance. We consider it, on the whole, the best work of the kind ever published in this country. The work, we perceive, has the unqualified recommendation of Judge Story, Dr. Wayland, and other distinguished men, fully competent to form a correct estimate of its value.

6.—*Shakspeare's Plays.* Edited by GULIAN C. VERPLANCK. The Illustrations designed, selected, and arranged by ROBERT W. WEIR. New York: H. W. Hewett.

Mr. Hewett has already acquired a wide reputation as the publisher of one of the most elegantly illustrated and printed copies of the Common Prayer-Book of the Protestant Episcopal Church, in this country; and the present seriel edition of the plays of the Bard of Avon has been pronounced the most magnificent ever published. Seven numbers of it have already appeared, embracing Hamlet, and a part of Macbeth. Mr. Verplanck, the American editor, after a careful collection of the texts, and an examination of the editions, for which, from his varied attainments, he is so well qualified, has selected the text of Mr. Collier's recent edition, to place in the printer's hands as the basis of the present impression. He has, however, departed from Collier's text in more than twenty places, chiefly by restoring the old folio readings where Mr. C. preferred those of the quartos. All the various readings affecting the sense will, however, be found in the notes.

7.—*Life in the Sick-Room. Essays,* by HARRIET MARTINEAU. With an Introduction to the American edition. By ELIZA L. FOLLEN. Boston: Leonard C. Bowles.

This work, "which cannot fail," says Mrs. Follen, "to be a blessing to humanity," had no name attached to it; yet every line of it so proclaimed its author, that the effort to be lost in the subject was vain. Such was Harriet Martineau's earnest desire to do what she could for her fellow-sufferers, by giving them the results of her painful but precious experience, through a hopeless illness of five years, that she was irresistibly compelled to utter herself to the world once more; but her reluctance to the self-exposure was so great, that she threw what veil she could over her words, by withholding her name. Not even her nearest and dearest friends knew that she had written such a book, till the grateful public declared that no one but her could have written "Life in a Sick-Room." Sympathy, nature, life, and death to the invalid—the temper, the perils and pains, and the griefs and sweets of invalidism, all pass in review before one, of whom it was beautifully said, by an appreciating friend—

> "Thou must endure, yet loving all the while;
> Alive, yet never sep'rate from thy kind;
> Meet every frailty with a tender smile,
> Though to no possible depth of evil blind."

8.—*Notes, Critical and Practical, on the Book of Joshua. Designed as a General Help to Biblical Reading and Instruction.* By GEORGE BUSH, Professor of Hebrew and Oriental Literature, New York City University. New York: Saxton & Miles.

Dr. Bush deservedly ranks among the first Hebrew scholars of our time. His interpretations of the prophecies of the Old Testament have attracted the attention of eminent Biblical scholars in Europe and America, and his critical and practical notes are generally *considered, by popular* theologians, as sound and orthodox.

9.—*Theory of Morals. An Inquiry concerning the Law of Moral Distinctions, and the Variations and Contradictions of Ethical Codes.* By RICHARD HILDRETH. Boston: Charles C. Little and James Brown.

The present volume is the first of six treatises which Mr. Hildreth proposes to produce, under the general title of "Rudiments of the Science of Man." They are to be published in the following order:—1. Theory of Morals; 2. Theory of Politics; 3. Theory of Wealth; 4. Theory of Taste; 5. Theory of Knowledge; 6. Theory of Education. The peculiarity of this series, we are informed, in the introduction to the present work, will consist in an attempt to apply, vigorously and systematically, to the several subjects, the inductive method of investigation—a method which, in physical science, has proved successful beyond expectation; but which, hitherto, has been very partially employed, and, in consequence, with very small results, upon the yet nobler and more important science of man. Mr. H. claims the merit of an earnest, honest, thoughtful, laborious endeavor after truth.

10.—*American Criminal Trials.* By PELEG W. CHANDLER, Member of the American Antiquarian Society, &c. Vol. II. Boston: Timothy H. Carter & Co.

The first volume of this work was published more than two years ago, and proved eminently successful. The two extend over a period of more than one hundred and fifty years, and contain accounts of the most important and interesting criminal trials that have taken place in this country, from the first establishment of judicial tribunals here, till after the adoption of the constitution of the United States. In the form of abridged narrations, divested of the technicalities of legal proceedings, they will be interesting to the general reader; and, as illustrations of the morals and manners, the religious and political history of that period, valuable to the philosophical inquirer.

11.—*D'Aubigne's "History of the Reformation in Germany and Switzerland" Reviewed; or, the Reformation in Germany Examined in its Instruments, Causes, and Manner, and in its Influence on Religion, Government, Literature, and General Civilization.* By M. J. SPALDING, D. D. Baltimore: John Murphy.

This work is designed by the author to point out what he conceives to be M. D'Aubigne's "numerous omissions, blunders, and misrepresentations." He considers that work a "tissue of miserable cant and misrepresentation, from beginning to end." This he hopes to make appear by undeniable evidence, consisting of facts taken from original documents, and other authentic sources. The volume before us, a duodecimo of nearly four hundred pages, embraces an extended and connected essay on the Protestant Reformation in Germany, examining that revolution in the character of the men who brought it about, in its causes and manner, and in its influences on religion, on free government, on literature, and on general civilization. The impartial investigator of truth who has read D'Aubigne, will feel it his duty, doubtless, to examine the review of Mr. Spalding.

12.—*The Goths in New England: A Discourse delivered at the Anniversary of the Philomathesian Society of Middlebury College, August,* 1843. By GEORGE P. MARSH.

We have read this excellent discourse with great interest. The subject is ably discussed, and every page and paragraph bears the impress of the deep thinker and accomplished scholar. Mr. Marsh now worthily represents Vermont, his native state, in Congress. He is yet a young man, and we predict for him an honorable and brilliant career in statesmanship and political science.

13.—*The Brother and Sister, and other Tales.* By Mrs. ELLIS, author of "The Irish Girl, and other Poems," "Mothers of England," "Poetry of Life," etc., etc. New York: H. G. Langley.

This little volume contains thirteen tales, selected from the Juvenile Scrap-Book of Mrs. Ellis. Inculcating, like all the writings of the author, moral truths in connection with the happy recollections of fireside enjoyments, and pleasant narrative, they will find readers in all family circles, *of every age, capacity,* and condition.

14.—*The Catholic Church, in England and America.* By JOHN D. OGILBY, D. D., Professor of Ecclesiastical History in the General Theological Seminary of the Protestant Episcopal Church, &c. 12mo., pp. 208. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

This volume contains three lectures on the "Church in England and America, Apostolic and Catholic;" the "Course of the English Reformation;" "Its Character and Results." They were prepared for delivery to a popular audience, in a course of lectures on the distinctive principles of the Church. The writer maintains the claims of his Church to the title of "Protestant" and "Episcopal," which has been awarded to it by the Romish Church on the one hand, and the dissenting congregations on the other. It is printed in the uniformly beautiful style of the valuable collection of standard works embraced in the "Churchman's Library."

15.—*Irish Girl, and other Poems.* By SARAH ELLIS, author of "Women of England," "Poetry of Life," etc. New York: H. G. Langley.

The universal and deserved popularity of Mrs. Ellis's prose productions induced the American publisher to collect her fugitive pieces in verse, under the very natural impression that they would prove acceptable to the public, more especially since they have never before appeared in a collected form. Although they can scarcely lay claim to an equal degree of literary excellence with the best poetic productions of the day, they certainly are not destitute of that distinguishing charm of domestic interest which characterises the numerous prose works of this esteemed author, on the morals of social life. The volume is, however, by no means destitute of merit—all the pieces are in good taste, and several which grace the collection might challenge poetical criticism with impunity.

16.—*The Book that Will Suit You; or, A Word for Every One.* By the Rev. JAMES SMITH, author of the "Believer's Daily Remembrancer," etc. New York: M. W. Dodd.

This neatly printed little book is intended by the author "to lay on the table in the drawing-room, parlor, hall, kitchen, or cottage, that the visiter who is waiting for an interview, or the servant who is waiting for a message, or the neighbor who comes in to sit down for a few minutes, may take it up, and read a portion." It consists of laconic illustrations of texts of Scripture, conveyed in language the meaning of which cannot be mistaken.

17.—*The Chemical and Physiological Balance of Organic Nature. An Essay.* By M. J. DUMAS and M. J. B. BOUSSONGAULT, Member of the Institute of France. Edited by D. P. GARDINER, M. D., Lecturer on Agricultural Chemistry, &c. New York: Saxton & Miles.

This excellent little work presents a variety of new views, calculated to supply general physiology, medicine, and agriculture, with grounds upon which the study of the chemical phenomena that take place in organized beings may be advantageously pursued. The doctrines of Dumas and Boussingault, as here expressed, are prefatory to a more detailed practical treatise.

18.—*The Mother's Book.* By L. MARIA CHILD, author of the "Frugal Housewife," the "Girl's Own Book," "Philothea," "Letters from New York," etc. New York: C. S. Francis.

Few works of this class have had a more extensive circulation, either in England or America; and we are under great obligations to the New York publisher for producing a sixth edition, with corrections and additions by the author. It is replete with sensible and judicious hints, remarks, and suggestions; and, if it is not already, should be in the hands of every mother in America.

19.—*The Girl's Manual, comprising a Summary View of Female Accomplishments, and Principles of Conduct.*

20.—*The Boy's Manual, comprising a Summary View of the Studies, Accomplishments, and Principles of Conduct best suited for promoting Respectability, and Success in Life.* New York: D. Appleton & Co.

Excellent manuals, replete with sound and judicious hints for the guidance of boys and girls, in all the circumstances and relations of life.

21.—*The Christian Doctrines.* By Rev. Hubbard Winslow, author of "Young Man's Aid," "Doctrine of the Trinity," etc., etc. Boston: Crocker & Brewster.

In this volume, we have a series of discourses delivered by the author, in the ordinary course of his ministerial duties. The subjects classified are—the Existence, Natural and Moral Attributes of God; Creation; Powers and Depravity of Man; the Doctrines of the Atonement, Election, Regeneration, Justification, Adoption, Perseverance, the Punishment of the Wicked, and the Reward of the Righteous, &c. Mr. Winslow is a Calvinistic Congregationalist, and asserts and maintains the various doctrines of Christianity, as they are understood by the popular theologians of the day, with his usual force and clearness.

22.—*The Maxims, Experiences, and Observations of Agagos.* By Charles William Day, author of "Hints on Etiquette." Boston: Otis, Broaders & Co.

Although this little volume was written in England, for the English, it will doubtless, as human nature is pretty much the same the world over, be found to contain much that is useful or suggestive to the new society into which the author has entered. "Those whom it touches not," says Mr. Day, "can exclaim, with Hamlet, 'Let the galled jade wince—our withers are unwrung;'" whilst, to such as feel goaded by the spur of conscience, all he would say is, "Go, and sin no more." It contains many excellent maxims, and piquant remarks.

23.—*The Christian Philosopher; or, The Connection of Science and Philosophy with Religion.* Illustrated with engravings. By Thomas Dick, LL. D. Philadelphia: Edward C. Biddle.

The present is a reprint of a work that has passed through eight large editions in Great Britain, and several stereotype editions in this country, in the East and West Indies, and on the continent of Europe. The author has availed himself of the progress made in the arts and sciences since the second edition was published, so as to embrace the latest improvements and discoveries in the different departments to which its diversified subjects refer. The additions amount to about one hundred and thirty pages, and between twenty and thirty additional engravings.

24.—*The Young Gardener's Assistant, in Three Parts; containing Catalogues of Garden and Flower Seed, with Practical Directions under each head, for the Cultivation of Culinary Vegetables and Flowers. Also, Directions for Cultivating Fruit Trees, the Grape Vine, &c. To which is added, A Calendar to each Part, showing the work necessary to be done in the various departments, each month of the year. Adapted to the Climate of the United States.* By Thomas Bridgman, Gardener, Seedsman, and Florist.

The design of this work is so copiously stated in the title-page, which we have quoted entire, that it is unnecessary to say more on that head. A work, too, which has passed through nine editions prior to the present, which is the tenth, and of which more than fourteen thousand copies have been sold, and which is recommended by all the agricultural Journals in the country, scarcely requires any encomium on its merits from us, were we competent to pronounce it. We will, therefore, only add that the present edition is handsomely printed by Mr. A. Hanford.

25.—*The Tongue of Time; or, The Language of a Clock.* By William Harrison, A. M., of Basenore College, Oxford, &c. From the second London edition. Boston: Saxton, Peirce & Co.

This is certainly a unique little volume. At the head of each chapter is the face of a watch, with the hand pointing at the time, from one to twelve; and under the picture, a passage from Scripture, containing just as many words as the hand of the watch points at. It commences at "one o'clock" with the word "Watch;" then "two," with the words "Fear God;" "three, "Honor all men;" and so on to twelve. Each hour, and passage of holy writ, are illustrated with appropriate reflections, designed to enforce some moral or religious truth.

26.—*A Pictorial History of the United States, with Notices of other Portions of America.* By S. G. Goodrich, author of "Peter Parley's Tales." Philadelphia: Samuel Agnew.

The main purpose of this work is to furnish a full, accurate, and just history of the western continent, which will attract the young, and render the subject a common school study throughout the land. The interest of the reader is kept alive by continuous narrative, anecdotes, perspicuous arrangement, and simplicity of style. It is copiously illustrated with engravings of scenes and incidents, portraits, plans and maps, designed to convey correct ideas of men and things.

27.—*The Widow's Jewels. In Two Stories.* By a Lady. Boston: Waite, Pierce & Co.

Simple and affecting stories, designed to interest and improve the young mind and heart.

28.—*The Young Sailor. A Narrative Founded on Fact.* By Mrs. Mary S. B. Dana, author of the "Parted Family," "Charles Morton," etc. New York: Harper & Brothers.

The main incidents of this narrative are derived from a manuscript belonging to the individual to whom these incidents, somewhat embellished, occurred. It is interesting and instructive.

29.—*The Ciceronian; or, The Prussian Method of Teaching the Elements of the Latin Language. Adapted to the Use of American Schools.* By B. Sears. Boston: Gould, Kendall & Lincoln.

The Prussian system of education is universally admitted to be the most thorough and complete; and this little manual, adopted in the schools of that country, has been adapted to the condition of our American schools by one of the finest classical scholars in the United States. It is considered, by those best able to form an opinion of its merits, as the best work of its class in use.

30.—*Life in the New World; or, Sketches of American Society.* By Seatsfield. Translated from the German. By Augustus C. Hebbe, LL. D., and James Mackay, M. A. New York: J. Winchester.

This completes the first volume of the series of Seatsfield's works, and forms a handsomely bound volume of about three hundred and fifty pages octavo, embracing the Courtship of George Howard, Esquire; the Courtship of Ralph Doughby, Esquire, in the Life of a Planter; Scenes in the Southwest; and the Squatter Chief, or the first American in Texas.

31.—*The World's Religion, as Contrasted with Christianity.* By Lady Colquhoun, Daughter of the Hon. John Sinclair. New York: John S. Taylor & Co.

Fashionable Christianity is here brought in contrast with what the writer deems genuine scriptural Christianity; and the poverty of the former is contrasted with the blessedness of the latter, by a fervent and devout heart.

32.—*The Republic.*

This new daily has now been continued about four months, and is unquestionably one of the ablest Journals in the United States. It is neutral in politics, but pursues a dignified and independent course in the discussion of the great questions that agitate the country. Its reports of speeches, and the proceedings of public meetings, are generally accurate and impartial. Mr. Kettell, the gentleman who prepares the money and commercial articles, is perhaps the best informed writer, on financial matters, in the United States; and his views are received in Great Britain with marked consideration and respect. The leading editorials of Mr. Ryan, the principal editor, are well considered and judicious. We, of course, do not wish to be understood as endorsing all the views entertained by the editor, or put forth in the columns of this Journal.

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HUNT'S

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.

AUGUST, 1844.

Art. I.—THE PUBLIC LANDS OF THE UNITED STATES.

The wide domain now owned by the United States is a valuable treasure to the nation. Constituting a vast extent of territory, a considerable portion of which is comprised of productive soil, it affords a wide field of future colonization, and will sustain, in coming time, a large portion of our population. Covered in part with dense forest, requiring vigorous labor to subdue it, or expanding into prairie, it is watered by numerous rivers, rivulets, lakes or springs, which running through the landscape, tend to fertilize and adorn, while a chain of inland seas furnishes to a portion of its borders, the most extensive track of inland navigation to be found upon our continent. The dense wilderness, stretching out its luxuriant vegetation into the interior, and overshadowing the silent river or the lake—the wide-spread plain, studded with groves, whose flowery pastures furnish feeding ground for the elk and the deer—the prairie, waving like the ocean, with the long and coarse grass of these natural meadows, and destined to be covered with golden grain—the transparent stream and the fountain, blend their contrasted beauties in one broad expanse, inviting the labors of agricultural industry. By the public lands, we mean all those lands belonging to the general government, and secured to the country by treaties with foreign nations and with the Indian tribes, as well as by cessions to the general government from the individual states. We propose, in the present paper, to consider the prominent circumstances connected with this interest, relating to its progress and present condition.

The original title to the territory of the Union, is traced back to discovery and appropriation, by England, France, Spain, Holland and other nations of Europe. The early explorers of the country, who sailed under commissions from their respective governments, as they penetrated the different portions of the wilderness, advancing through its rivers and bays and planting *upon the shores* their national monuments, a roughly

hewn stone or a cross, as the evidences of their title to the soil, took possession in the name of the governments from which they had derived their commissions. We find, accordingly, the English advancing their colonies upon the territory now comprised in New England and a considerable portion of the south; the Dutch scattered along the shores of the Hudson; the Spanish cultivating the interval lands of Florida; and the French, raising in the wilderness, from the banks of the St. Lawrence along the shores of the lakes to the mouth of the Mississippi, the badges of their discoveries and appropriations. But time passes and important changes are effected. The Dutch relinquish their claim to the banks of the Hudson; the French, whose colonies were scattered along the line of the lakes and navigable rivers, from Quebec to New Orleans, yield the territory to England by the treaty of 1763; and the Spanish relinquish Florida. At last, a solid and permanent title has passed to the United States of America, as the last, and we doubt not, final proprietor of the soil.

The boundaries of the United States were established by the treaty of 1783, with England, at the close of the war of the revolution. Louisiana and Florida, were afterwards purchased and added to the territory of the Union, and it is thus that the general boundaries of the country have become defined and fixed, extending north and south, from the northern limits of Maine to the southern limits of Georgia, and east and west, from the shore of the Atlantic to the shore of the Pacific.

The public domain has been acquired by the treaty of 1783, with Great Britain, at the close of the revolution; the treaty of 1795, with the Indian tribes, and subsequent treaties of like character; that of 1819, with Spain, by which the property of Florida was gained to the country; and that of 1803, with France, by which Louisiana was included within the boundaries of the United States, as well as by the cessions made from the several states to the general government.

The lands lying east of the Mississippi, were, at the close of the revolution, claimed by the several states on the ground of original colonial charters, which, although general in their terms, extended from sea to sea. At that period, the country had been involved in a long war, which had impoverished its coffers and emptied its resources, and recommendations were accordingly made to the several states, to cede their titles to the western lands in order to aid in the payment of this national debt. In accordance with this recommendation, several of the states ceded their titles to the lands claimed under their original patents. The tracts, thus ceded, embrace three separate territories. One of those territories, comprising Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, Wisconsin and Iowa, a tract extending north of the river Ohio and west of Pennsylvania and Virginia, reaching northward to the northern boundary of the United States, and westward to the Mississippi, was originally claimed by Virginia, a state that was in the possession of Vincennes and Kaskaskias, having defended those places during the war of the revolution. Claims to the same territory, were urged by Massachusetts, Connecticut and New York, which, together with Virginia, ceded to the Union their rights to this tract. The state of Georgia, ceded to the Union its claims to lands lying within the boundaries of the states of Alabama and Mississippi.* So, also, North

* See the Report of Hon. William Coet Johnson, of Maryland, on the public lands, *made in the House of* Representatives, March 2, 1843.

Carolina and South Carolina, ceded their claims to land lying within the state of Tennessee.*

In this mode, the United States have become the proprietor of a portion of the western land. The first tract to which we have alluded, was comprised in what was denominated the northwestern territory. For the government of this territory, an ordinance was framed in 1787. The boundaries of the states, within the limits of the territory, were fixed by the fifth article of the ordinance, that instrument providing, at the same time, that there should be formed therein not less than three, or more than five states. Other provisions of a most beneficial character, were also embodied in this judicious frame of government. The general policy required to be exercised, in respect to that portion of the public land embraced in the northwest territory, is, moreover, prescribed in the ordinance, as well as by act of Congress. The ordinance upon that subject, distinctly declares that "the legislatures of those districts or new states, shall never interfere with the primary disposal of the soil by the United States in Congress assembled, nor with any regulations Congress may find necessary for securing the title in such soil to the *bona fide* purchasers;"† and, also, that "no tax shall be imposed on lands, the property of the United States, and that, in no case, non-residents should be taxed higher than residents." Upon the same subject, the constitution of the United States expressly provides, that, Congress shall have power to dispose of, and to make all needful rules and regulations respecting the territory or other public property of the United States. The ordinance also prescribes that, when the several territories shall have attained a certain amount of population, they shall be admitted into the Union upon an equal footing with the original states.

The purchase of Louisiana, was made from France, in 1803, with $15,000,000. A cession had been made of this territory, as early as 1800, by Spain, to Napoleon Bonaparte, and at that period it became the property of France. In the acquisition of this tract of soil, by that mighty but reckless conqueror, it has been alleged that it was his design to take possession of the land, and to employ it as an entering wedge for subsequent operations in this country; but, aroused by the gigantic strides which this audacious warrior was making in the subjugation of the world, Great Britain adopted rigid measures to stay his progress. For that purpose, a number of troops, as also a fleet destined for the colony of Louisiana, were kept in a state of strict blockade in the ports of Holland. This energetic movement, on the part of Great Britain, convinced that successful chieftain, that his design of occupying the country was impracticable, and, in consequence, he relinquished his undertaking, and soon determined to offer it for sale to the United States.‡ At this crisis, the American commissioners arrived in Paris. From the valuable object to be attained by the possession of the control of the entire navigation of the Mississippi, although without any clear constitutional authority, the sum of $15,000,000 was paid, and Louisiana became a part of our territory.

The territory of Florida was purchased in much the same mode. On

* The tract in the state of Ohio, known under the name of the Connecticut reserve, was excepted from the cession by Connecticut. This is now the basis of the Connecticut school fund.

† Ordinance of 1787, for the government of the territory northwest of the river Ohio.

‡ Pitkin's Statistics.

the 22d day of February, 1819, a treaty was concluded between Spain and the United States, by which Florida was made the property of the Union, it being sold to this country for the sum of $5,000,000. It is thus, that the United States have become the proprietors of the public lands, holding them in trust, as a common fund for the benefit of the Union, and bound to manage this fund with the most scrupulous integrity and in strict conformity to the laws.

The amount of public lands, embraced in the several cessions made both by the states and foreign nations, as well as their condition at the present time, constitute a subject of interest to the public. A table is accordingly here subjoined, exhibiting the ceded tracts embraced in each state, the quantity sold and unsold, up to September 30th, 1841, as well as the quantity to which the Indian title has been extinguished and unextinguished, down to the same period, for which we are indebted to congressional documents.

STATEMENT RESPECTING THE LANDS ACQUIRED BY THE UNITED STATES OF NORTH AMERICA, UNDER DEEDS OF CESSION, FROM THE STATES AND FROM FOREIGN NATIONS.

Territory Northwest of the river Ohio, and East of the Mississippi river, ceded by the States.

States, &c.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.
Ohio,*	17,733,841	13,144,013	1,063,750	17,733,841	.....
Indiana,	22,309,669	13,788,665	5,481,489	22,309,669	.....
Illinois,	35,941,902	11,468,527	19,894,086	35,941,902	.....
Michigan,	42,175,032	9,199,492	31,198,652	31,118,392	11,056,640
Wisconsin,	47,241,600	1,994,147	43,217,807	29,863,925	17,377,675
Agg'gate,	165,402,044	49,594,844	100,855,784	136,967,729	28,434,315

Territory North of 31 degrees North Latitude, and East of the Mississippi river, ceded by the States.

States, &c.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.
Alabama,	32,742,080	10,364,608	20,306,929	32,742,080	.....
Mississippi,	28,527,050	9,533,446	11,369,830	28,527,050	.....
Agg'gate,	61,269,130	19,898,054†	31,676,759	61,269,130	.....

Territory ceded by France and Spain.

States, &c.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.
Missouri,	42,854,687	7,975,020	32,621,530	42,854,687	.....
Arkansas,	31,468,911	2,622,414	26,278,241	31,468,911	.....
Louisiana,	20,437,659	2,928,702	16,395,170	20,437,659	.....

* These quantities in Ohio and Indiana are exclusive of the Virginia military district, containing 3,709,484 acres; and the Connecticut Western Reserve, containing 3,366,921 acres in the former state, and the reservation of 150,000 acres in the latter, to Clarke and his associates, which were reserved by the deeds of cession.

† The quantities put down as sold in the states of Alabama and Mississippi, (north of 31st degree of latitude,) are exclusive of the lands ceded by the Chickasaw Indians, to be sold for their benefit. The area of this cession is as follows:—

In Mississippi,	6,283,996
Alabama,	434,589
Area of Chickasaw nation,	6,718,585

Of which there remains unsold—

In Mississippi,	933,517
Alabama,	218,538
Quantity unsold,	1,152,055

STATEMENT RESPECTING THE LANDS ACQUIRED BY THE UNITED STATES, etc.

Territory ceded by France and Spain.—Continued.

States, &c.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.
Mississip.,*	2,547,184	38,378	2,438,251	2,547,184	.....
Alabama,†..	1,259,146	155,232	1,068,938	1,259,146	.....
Florida,....	36,755,340	855,104	34,332,055	36,755,340	.....
Iowa,‡.....	846,295,680§	1,194,910	692,425,037	7,082,831	706,917,169
Agg'gate,	981,618,607	15,769,760	805,559,222	142,405,758	706,917,169
Gr. total,	1,208,289,781	85,262,658	938,091,765	340,642,617	735,351,484

NOTE.—In the foregoing tables, the first column contains the quantity of land embraced in the cession; the second, the quantity of land sold to Sept. 30, 1841; the third, the quantity of land remaining unsold; the fourth, the quantity of land to which the Indian title is extinguished; the fifth, the quantity of land to which the Indian title is unextinguished. The quantities of land put down in the several states and territories, except Ohio and Indiana, as remaining unsold, were necessarily made up, in a great measure, by estimates, as follows:—From the *estimated* area of the state, the quantity sold, and otherwise disposed of, was deducted, and the remainder treated as land remaining to be sold.

The treaties which have from time to time, been made with the Indian tribes, by our own government, have secured to us the title to a considerable portion of the Indian territory. Upon their own soil and among themselves, so far as their rights of person are concerned, the governments of those tribes are considered independent governments. It is true, that the government of the United States has assumed the right of purchasing their land to the exclusion of every other purchaser; but the territory of the Indians has never been offered for sale, by this country, without a fair and full purchase of their title. The first treaty made with them, by us, was that of Greenville, in 1795; and as it may be considered a model of subsequent treaties, and may exhibit the tone of our policy regarding them, we would designate its general terms. By this treaty, perpetual peace is established; the Indians acknowledge themselves under the protection of the Union, and engage to sell their lands to them only. Certain regulations, to be preserved between the two parties to the treaty, are embodied; and, in return, the United States engage to protect the Indians, to pay them in goods to a certain amount, and to make them certain annual stipulated payments. The relation of the government, to the Indian tribes within our borders, is analogous to that of a guardian to a ward, and we trust that our intercourse with them will ever be charged with such responsibilities and duties.

As different parts of our public domain have been derived from England, France and Spain, various claims have been made by individuals to tracts, either by right of occupancy under our own laws, or in virtue of grants, made by those foreign governments, before the territory passed to the United States. It became, in consequence, necessary, that those claims should be adjusted. In accordance with that object, boards of commissioners have been appointed by several acts of Congress, whose duty it has been made, to examine the validity of those claims in these several territories, and either to pass their own final judgment upon them,

* South of 31st degree of latitude. † South of 31st degree of latitude.

‡ Including the whole northwestern territory to the Pacific ocean, and the lands west of the states of Missouri and Arkansas.

§ This quantity of 846,295,680 acres includes the quantity of 132,295,680 acres, south of the La Platte river, set apart by Government for the emigrant Indians. Also, the 7,082,831 acres, in the territory of Iowa *proper*, ceded to the United States.

or to report the facts upon which they are founded, to Congress, with their own opinions. In this mode, those claims that had been derived from legitimate authority, have been confirmed, as well as other claims which it was conceived proper to place upon a fixed basis, although from the circumstances of the case, the legal titles had not been clearly perfected.*

Let us now direct the attention of our readers to some of the earliest enterprises connected with the public lands. As early as 1776, Silas Deane, a political and commercial agent in France, proposed a plan for the sale and settlement of the public lands, but without success. It was the original plan to dispose of the public domain in large tracts; and, in 1787, an extent of one million and a half of acres was sold to the Ohio company, by which the state of Ohio was first colonized. Two years afterward, a contract was made with Mr. John Cleves Symmes, for the purchase of a million and a half of acres between the Great and Little Miami; but in consequence of the failure of the payment of the purchase money, the patent that issued to himself and his associates, conveyed a much smaller tract.

The first law of the United States for the disposition of the public lands, permitted its sale in tracts of four thousand acres each. This policy appears to have been injudicious, since it exercised a direct tendency to prevent their sentlement, by engrossing them in the hands of a few large proprietors, who were enabled to dispose of those tracts to sub-purchasers at an enhanced price, while the small proprietors, were, in effect, excluded from making purchases from the government. In July, 1790, Alexander Hamilton, then Secretary of the Treasury, proposed a system for the sale of the public lands, the most prominent features of which, were, that the tracts set apart to each settler, should not exceed one hundred acres; that the prices of the land sold under special contract, should be thirty cents per acre, payable in gold or silver, or in public securities, computing those bearing an interest of 6 per cent per annum, the same as gold and silver, and those bearing a future or less interest at a proportionate value. In every instance of credit it was required, that one quarter should be paid down and independent security be given for the residue, and that all surveys of lands should be made at the expense of the purchasers.

On the 10th of May, 1800, the passage of a law of the United States, wrought a beneficial change in the mode of disposing of the public lands, and effectually overthrew the former system by providing for its sale in sections and half sections. That this law was first proposed in Congress by President Harrison, in 1799, when a delegate to that body from the northwestern territory, and was regarded with favor in that body.† It held out substantial advantages to the west, in the inducements which it furnished for colonization and improvements. Prior to this period, it had been sold but in small quantity in New York, in evidence of public debt, as well as in Philadelphia and Pittsburgh, at the rate of two dollars for the acre. The financial talents of Albert Gallatin were also exerted for the furtherance of the same object. Although the bill met with opposition from many honest minds, President Harrison successfully met their objections, and demonstrated the pernicious consequences of the old system, resulting in preventing sales to actual settlers, and in the accummulation of extensive tracts in the hands of non-resident proprietors.

* Reports of these Land Boards may be found in the American State Papers.
† *Hall's Statistics of* the West.

For the purpose of providing the means of popular education in the new states, a convention was held in Vincennes during the year 1802, of which General Harrison acted as president, when a petition was adopted, praying that one thirty-sixth part of the public lands, within that territory, should be devoted to the support of common schools. In accordance with this petition, a favorable report was made by Mr. Randolph upon the subject, which laid the foundation for the subsequent provision, granting that proportion of the public domain for the support of common schools in the new states. Petitions were also presented to Congress, in 1803, praying for essential changes in the land system of the country. Among the most important of those changes, were the sale of the land in smaller tracts—the abolition of all charges of interest upon those sales—the selling for cash instead of on credit—the reduction of the price, and the granting of small tracts to actual settlers. In consequence of these efforts, a report was made in the House of Representatives on the 23d of January, 1804, recommending a reduction of the size of the tracts offered for sale, and from those successive acts, commenced in the year 1800, the present land system has been established.

The price that was required for the government land, previous to the year 1800, was two dollars per acre, one fourth of which was required to be paid at the time of the purchase, and the remainder in three annual instalments, a discount of 8 per cent being allowed if the purchaser paid in advance. From the fertility of the soil, the prospect of its increase in value, and the easy terms of sale, individuals were induced to enter very extensively into the purchase of this species of property, for the mere purpose of speculation. Exercising their utmost powers to obtain the means to pay the first instalments, they anticipated an advance in the value of their lands for the payment of the remainder. A considerable portion of the people thus became the purchasers of land upon such terms, resulting in their ruin. The continual introduction of new lands into market, diminished the value of those that were already purchased. The importation of merchandize from the eastern seaports, drained the population of their means, and the products of the west, however abundant, could command but small price in consequence of the want of channels of export. All the capital that could be procured, was required to bring into cultivation all the land that was already purchased, and this was sufficient for the improvement of but a small portion. The greater part of the land thus sold, accordingly remained in its primeval wildness.

The system adopted for the survey sale, and general disposition of the public land, is attended with very great advantages. The tracts ordered to be brought into market are first surveyed into townships of six miles square, and those are divided into sections of one square mile, each containing six hundred and forty acres. The lines are run to the cardinal points, and cross each other at right angles, excepting where they are formed by an Indian boundary line or the course of a stream. The sections are subdivided into quarter, half quarter, and quarter quarter sections, the first containing one hundred and sixty acres, the second eighty, and the third forty; their dimensions being accurately ascertained by fixed rules which are prescribed by law. The duty of survey is performed by two principal surveyors, by whom their deputies are appointed, all being under the direction of the commissioner of the general land office, in Washington. The townships are placed in ranges, and are numbered,

and the sections in each township are also numbered from one to thirty-six. These surveys are based upon a series of true maridians. The first principal maridian, is in Ohio, the second in Indiana, the third in Illinois, and in other states, each constituting the base of a series of surveys, so that the whole territory is divided into squares, whose divisions are defined with mathematical accuracy in parallel ranges, by "*blaring*" the trees, a process that is performed by shaving the bark from the sides of their trunks.

The remarkable precision of this mode of survey, based as it is upon well ascertained principles, effectually prevents disputes regarding boundary lines. The duty of survey in fact, furnishes to the surveyor, and through him to the public, an exact knowledge of the topography of the country, its agricultural resources, and its streams and lakes; for the surveyor with his chain and compass, advances into the wilderdness like the mariner upon the ocean, making out its character accurately upon the chart, and "blaring" the trees in the track of his lines, as the mariner traces the courses of the channel upon the sea, and marks the boundaries of its rocks and shoals.

The lands having been thus surveyed, and districts laid off, a land office is established in each district, and on a certain day, prescribed by the President of the United States, a public sale of land takes place, the whole being offered in the market to the highest bidder, none being, however, permitted to be sold under a certain minimum price. The tracts remaining unsold, are then offered to the public at private sale, and may be purchased at the land offices at one minimum price, which is one dollar and a quarter for the acre. One section in each township, that is, one thirty-sixth part of the land, is devoted perpetually to the support of common schools within the township, the nearly central section, number sixteen, being designated for that object by law. One entire township, comprising twenty-three thousand and forty acres, has, moreover, been reserved in each state and territory, for the maintainance of a higher order of seminaries of learning. Five per cent are reserved on the amount of sales in each state, three-fifths of which are required to be expended by Congress in the making of roads through the state, and two-fifths for the diffusion of useful knowledge. Besides these grants, all salt springs and lead mines are reserved to the government.

In each district, the labors of the land office are performed by a register and receiver; it being the duty of the register to sell the land, and that of the receiver to accept the payment. The duties of these two offices are, however, entirely distinct, each keeping its own records, performing its functions independent of the other and assuming separate responsibilities. They are both required, moreover, to keep separate books of account, to make periodical reports to the general land office, at Washington, the one of sales and the other of receipts, each officer acting as a check upon the other. Both the register and receiver, are bound to keep plots of all the lands within their districts, whether it is sold or unsold. All tracts are so marked and numbered upon the books of the land offices, that the purchaser may promptly select his tract, the register and receiver having only to receive the money and give the evidence of title. Each purchaser is granted, moreover, an original patent from the government, which is the most perfect title to his soil.

The people of the west, deprived of the circulation of money, then re-

sorted to the establishment of local banks, when they did not possess the capital to redeem their notes, and thus they were finally crushed. The failure of the purchasers of the tracts to pay their subsequent instalments, to which was affixed the penalty of the forfeiture of the entire tract purchased, and the general prostration of the fiscal interests of the country, subsequent to the peace of 1814, a period reaching down to the year 1819, resulted in deep and wide-spread bankruptcy. But the people of the west were not poor, except in money, for they possessed around them all the appliances of physical comfort. The beneficent policy of Mr. Crawford, then Secretary of the Treasury, perceiving the disastrous consequences that were likely to ensue from that state of things, originated a partial relief. The time of payment, for the purchasers from the government, was extended, and those purchasers were permitted to secure a portion of their lands by relinquishing the remainder to the United States. The consequence of this policy, was the extinguishment of a considerable part of the debts thus accumulated, and the whole was at length liquidated without any injury to either party.

Thus, it is, that the Union has become the final proprietor of the public lands; the claims of foreign nations and individual states have been entirely extinguished, and those of the Indian tribes to a considerable extent; the boundaries of the western states have been prescribed, in order that they might not be too large; tampering with the Indians, in order to gain their lands, has been effectually prevented; interfering claims of bordering states, to the same territory, have been adjusted; individual claims, under ancient grants, have been settled; and provision has been made for the erection of new states and their permanent colonization, by the liberal sale of the public lands, in small tracts and at a fair price, and by the admission of these into the Union upon an equal footing with the original states.

It has been, heretofore, made a question, how far the grant of portions of the public lands, for purposes of education and religion, as well as for canals, railroads, charitable institutions and other desirable objects, may be considered constitutional and proper. It has been held, however, that the public lands are entrusted to the hands of the general government as a common fund for the general benefit, and that a liberal construction should be given to its prescribed powers. It is maintained, that the government may be considered a guardian, exercising an important trust for the people; and that the granting of a portion of the public domain to the purposes of popular education and of charity, as well as physical improvement, is of substantial but indirect benefit to the whole country: for, of what advantage would be an extensive landed domain without a road running through it, or of a state without means of knowledge and religion? It has now become the settled policy of the government to make certain appropriations of land to the objects that we have specified. We subjoin a table, exhibiting the grants that have been made to those objects, for which we are indebted to documents published under the auspices of Congress.*

* We would here acknowledge an indebtedness for public documents, to Hon. William Woodbridge, the last able chairman of the committee on public lands, in the Senate.

EXHIBIT OF THE QUANTITY OF LAND GRANTED TO EACH OF THE STATES AND TERRITORIES, AND THE PURPOSES FOR WHICH GRANTED—FEBRUARY 7, 1839.

States & Territories.	Acres & 100ths.	Acres & 100ths.	Acres & 100ths.	Acres & 100ths.
Ohio,	69,120.00	1,050,287.74	.....	23,680.00
Indiana,	46,080.00	434,223.65	2,560.00	23,040.00
Illinois,	46,080.00	480,000.00	2,560.00	121,629.68
Missouri,	46,080.00	.....	2,449.00	46,080.00
Alabama,	46,560.00	400,000.00	1,620.00	23,040.00
Mississippi,	46,080.00	.....	1,280.00	.....
Louisiana,	46,080.00	.....	.....	.....
Michigan,	46,080.00	.....	13,200.00	46,080.00
Arkansas,	46,080.00	.....	10,600.00	46,080.00
Florida,	46,080.00	.....	1,120.00	.....
Wisconsin,	46,080.00	171,200.00	.....	.....
Iowa,	.....	.....	.....	.....
Total,	530,400.00	2,535,711.39	35,389.00	329,629.68

NOTE.—The first column embraces the quantity of land granted for colleges, academies, and universities; the second, the quantity granted for roads and canals; the third, the quantity granted for seats of government and public buildings; the fourth, the quantity granted for salines.

EXHIBIT OF QUANTITY OF LAND GRANTED TO EACH STATE AND TERRITORY, etc.—Continued.

States and Territories.	Acres & 100ths.	Acres & 100ths.	Acres & 100ths.
Ohio,	1,143,087.74	699,823.98	1,842,911.72
Indiana,	505,903.65	568,260.00	1,074,163.65
Illinois,	650,269.68	887,048.00	1,537,317.68
Missouri,	94,609.00	1,117,817.00	1,212,426.00
Alabama,	471,220.00	892,612.00	1,363,832.00
Mississippi,	47,360.00	786,190.00	833,550.00
Louisiana,	46,080.00	567,709.00	613,789.00
Michigan,	105,360.00	864,399.00	969,759.00
Arkansas,	102,760.00	874,136.00	976,896.00
Florida,	47,200.00	1,020,995.00*	1,068,195.00
Wisconsin,	217,280.00	829,553.00*	1,046,833.00
Iowa,	.....	196,745.00*	196,745.00
Total,	3,431,130.07	9,305,287.98	12,736,418.05

NOTE.—The first column embraces the aggregate quantity of land granted to each state and territory, exclusive of lands for the support of common schools; the second, the 1-36th part of the public lands in each state and territory, granted for the support of common schools; the third, the total quantity of land granted to each of the states and territories.

The quantity of land, yet unsold, as claimed by the United States, amounts, at the present time, according to the estimate of the commissioner of the general land office, to 142,731,765 acres; which, estimated at one dollar and twenty-five cents per acre, the lowest price at which they are offered for sale, makes their total value $1,303,414,706 25. A considerable portion of this land is doubtless waste,† being either covered with water or too sterile for cultivation; but even with this deduction, the extent of the public domain is now very great and the soil very valuable. The expenses of the general government, in the management of the public lands, are considerable; yet the income which they yield to the trea-

* The 1-36th part of the public lands in the territories is not, as yet, granted for the support of schools, but is reserved for that purpose; those in Florida under the provisions of the act of 3d March, 1823, providing for the survey and sale of the public lands in that territory; and those in Wisconsin and Iowa under the act of 20th May, 1785, entitled "An ordinance for ascertaining the mode of disposing of lands in the western territory."

† Report of Hon. William Cost Johnson.

sury amply warrant them. According to the commissioner of the general land office, and his statement is doubtless accurate, there were, on the 31st of October, 1843, of the unsold public lands, 1,042,731,765 acres; which, at the lowest price of government, one dollar and a quarter for the acre, would yield $1,303,414,706; that is, the sum of one billion, three hundred and three millions, four hundred and fourteen thousand, seven hundred and six dollars.

We would here subjoin a statement of the quantity of public land, in each state and territory, in a table obtained from the general land office.

States and Territories.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.
Ohio,	25,361,593*	25,361,593*	.....	25,253,605
Indiana,	23,411,431*	23,411,431*	.....	22,856,412
Michigan,	38,426,294	38,426,294†	.....	25,172,614
Illinois,	35,235,209	35,235,209	.....	33,823,655
Missouri,	43,169,028	43,169,028	.....	32,344,972
Arkansas,	31,912,563	31,912,563	.....	21,648,144
Louisiana,	28,297,602	28,297,602	.....	19,446,465
Mississippi,	30,153,054	30,153,054	.....	29,872,774
Alabama,	32,499,872	32,499,872	.....	32,421,872
Florida Territory,	34,423,055	34,423,055	.....	13,591,860
Wisconsin Territory,	47,175,292	28,143,492†	19,031,800	9,725,691
Iowa Territory, (part ceded,)	16,913,972	16,913,972‡	.....	6,488,292
Unceded territory east of the Rocky mountains, west of Mississippi river, and south of 49 deg. latitude,	478,549,708	.....	478,549,708	.....
Unceded territory west of the Rocky mountains, and south of 49 deg. latitude,	218,536,320	.....	218,536,320	.....
Total,	1,084,064,993§	367,947,165	716,117,828	272,646,356

NOTE.—The first column embraces the estimated quantity of land in each state and territory; the second, the quantity of public land in each state and territory to which the Indian title has been extinguished, up to March 1, 1843; the third, the quantity of public land in each state and territory to which the Indian title has been unextinguished, up to March 1, 1843; the fourth, the quantity of land surveyed.

TABLE—Continued.

States and Territories.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.
Ohio,	107,988		107,988
Indiana,	555,019	13,916,687	949,202
Michigan,	13,253,680		15,873,280
Illinois,	1,411,554	12,235,610	.....
Missouri,	10,824,056		
Arkansas,	10,264,419	10,264,419	.....
Louisiana,	8,851,137	8,851,137	.....

* Include reservations in the deeds of cession from the states to the United States, as follows:—

Virginia military, in Ohio,	3,709,848 acres.
Connecticut reserve, in Ohio,	2,666,921 "
Clark's reserve, in Indiana,	150,000 "
Total,	7,526,779 acres.

† Include Chippewa cession of 4th October, 1842, just ratified, as follows:—

In Michigan,	7,000,000 acres.
In Wisconsin,	8,000,000 "

‡ Includes the 10,000,000 acres ceded by the Sac and Fox treaty, of October 11, 1842, just ratified.

§ Exclusive of the 132,295,680 acres set apart for emigrant Indians, west of the states of Missouri and Arkansas.

TABLE—Continued.

States and Territories.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.
Mississippi,.....	280,280	280,280*	.....
Alabama,.....	78,000	78,000*	.....
Florida Territory,.....	20,831,195	20,831,195	.....
Wisconsin Territory,.....	37,449,601		
Iowa Territory, (the part ceded,).....	10,425,680		
Unceded territory east of Rocky mountains, west of Mississippi river, and south of 49 deg. latitude,.....	478,549,708	526,424,989	697,086,028
Unceded territory west of R'cky mountains, and south of 49 deg. latitude,	218,536,320	218,536,320	
Total,.....	811,418,637	811,418,637	714,016,498

NOTE.—The first column embraces the quantity of land unsurveyed; the second, the quantity unsurveyed in each surveyor-general's district; the third, the quantity not included in any land district.

It is perceived from the facts that have been exhibited, that a vast revenue is derived to the Union from the sale of the public lands. Those sales have, of course, varied from year to year, according to the abundance of money and the motives to emigration. The amount of sales has not very recently been so great as a few years since, when extensive tracts were purchased, not for settlement but for sale, and the whole west was one wide field of speculation. In order that our readers may judge accurately of the extent of the fluctuations in the sales of land, from year to year, as well as their amount, we subjoin the following table, which is doubtless accurate :—

STATEMENT

Of the annual receipts from the land offices into the Treasury, on account of the public lands sold, from the year 1801 *to the* 30*th of September,* 1842, *inclusive. Also, the moneys received by the Treasurer of the United States, Marshals, &c., on the same account, and the amount received for lands sold prior to the opening of the land offices.*

Years.	Amount.	Years.	Amount.
1801,.....	$168,125 01	1827,.....	$1,497,053 82
1802,.....	188,628 02	1828,.....	1,018,308 75
1803,.....	165,675 69	1829,.....	1,517,175 13
1804,.....	487,526 79	1830,.....	2,329,356 14
1805,.....	540,193 80	1831,.....	3,210,815 48
1806,.....	765,245 73	1832,.....	2,623,381 03
1807,.....	466,163 27	1833,.....	3,967,681 55
1808,.....	647,939 06	1834,.....	4,857,600 69
1809,.....	442,252 33	1835,.....	14,757,600 75
1810,.....	696,548 82	1836,.....	24,641,979 86
1811,.....	1,040,237 53	1837,.....	6,770,036 52
1812,.....	710,427 78	1838,.....	3,081,939 47
1813,.....	835,655 14	1839,.....	7,076,447 35
1814,.....	1,135,971 09	1840,.....	3,292,220 29
1815,.....	1,287,959 28	1841,.....	1,363,090 04
1816,.....	1,717,985 03	1842, (to 30th Sept.,)...	1,091,085 19
1817,.....	1,991,226 06		
1818,.....	2,606,564 77		$111,427,756 55
1819,.....	3,274,422 78	Rec'd by Treasurer of U.	
1820,.....	1,635,871 61	S., marshals, &c.,.....	244,954 14
1821,.....	1,212,966 46		
1822,.....	1,803,581 54		$111,672,710 69
1823,.....	916,523 10	Am't rec'd prior to open-	
1824,.....	984,418 15	ing the land offices,...	100,783 59
1825,.....	1,216,090 56		
1826,.....	1,393,785 09	Grand total,.....	$111,773,494 28

* *Are both* exclusive of private claims and old surveys to be retraced.

Several propositions have from time to time been made, regarding the disposition of the public lands, the two principal of which, are the gradual reduction of their price and the distribution of the surplus revenues, accruing from their sale, among the several states according to the several proportions of their population. In support of the first of these propositions, which has been very recently discussed, it is claimed that the lands are too high in price, and that no discrimination is made respecting those which are valuable and lands of an inferior quality, and it has been therefore advocated to graduate their price according to their value. It was proposed that, on the opening of a district, the land should be sold at one dollar and a quarter for the acre, that after three or five years, only one dollar should be demanded, and that it should thus be gradually reduced in price, in order to encourage its rapid settlement. The other question, respecting the distribution of the surplus revenues accruing from the public lands to the several states, in proportion to their respective populations, has also been before Congress, but is not finally determined.

Another feature of legislation, respecting the public lands, is, the granting to those who have made improvement upon certain tracts, those tracts, at the lowest price of government, by the enactment of what are termed pre-emption laws. Those laws have been passed from time to time, and the act of September, 1841, embodies such provisions as to prevent fraud, and to advance the objects which were intended by their passage, namely, the rapid colonization of the new lands of the west. So far as those objects are advanced, the passage of such laws may, perhaps, be salutary. The sources from which the revenues of the country are derived, are mainly imports and the public lands; and the last, as has been seen, is of great value to the nation, and should be parted with only when warranted by a sound policy.

In connection with the subject of the public lands, we should, perhaps, do wrong, were we to fail to allude to the speculations with which they have been recently involved. From the extraordinary inflation of the currency, during the year 1836, inducing an abundance of unredeemable bank paper, this paper, used as money, was diminished in value, in the same proportion that the factitious value of all sorts of property was advanced. At that period, credit was abundant and stocks of every kind arose in price. This was true of real estate, throughout the country, and peculiarly so regarding the new lands of the west. Those lands, from their rapid settlement, had ever been found fluctuating in value, yet commonly advancing, in proportion to the progress of colonization and improvement. In consequence of the abundance of money at that period, the enthusiasm of the people was kindled into extreme fervor, and objects for investment were everywhere sought, where an increase of wealth could be anticipated. Along the most favored points of the western territory, tracts were sold at an enhanced price, not in most cases for money, but for individual and bank notes, many of which were never redeemed. Numerous banks sprang up, without a solid basis; large amounts of capital were invested in the construction of villages, without an interior country to maintain their trade; and extensive portions, that were purchased from the government at the minimum price, were sold at fifty times their cost and value.

Even those tracts that had remained since the creation, in a state of uncultivated wilderness, were surveyed and marked off into cities, with

their streams and lakes portrayed upon the maps, and sold in parcels as city lots. From the Falls of Niagara to the shores of Lake Superior, there was stretched out an extensive chain of populous cities in the visions of speculation. Extravagance increased proportionately to the amount of individual hazard and prospective profit. The necessary consequence of this state of things, was, that thousands were induced to purchase when they did not possess the means of ultimate payment, and at exorbitant prices. But the bubble that had been thus inflated, soon broke, and with it, the rainbow pictures that were painted upon its surface. Many of the cities, which, under the influence of the mania of speculation, had been laid out upon paper, fell into their original quietude in consequence of the want of inhabitants, or developed agricultural resources to support their trade; and the stream of speculation sunk down into its former channel, after a large amount of property had been swept away by the deluge that had overflowed its banks.

We have traced the prominent circumstances, connected with the political history of the public lands. It is a most valuable domain, stretching through, not merely the organized states and territories of the nation, but through vast plains beyond the Arkansas, and those, too, within the bounds of our country, now roamed over by herds of the buffalo and the wild horse. When the Indian title to those extensive tracts is extinguished, they will then, as it is well known, form a part of the national domain. Its fertile soil, will doubtless become the granary of the nation, abounding, as it now does, with the resources of agricultural wealth. With the advance of colonization into the interior, it is probable that cities may spring up on its lakes and rivers, that will rival those of the east; and that the forests, which now spread out their gloomy twilight to shelter the bear and the wolf, will soon give place to the cultivated field and the smiling village, the workshop and the cottage—to a prosperous and contented people. This result, will be as sure as the duration of the government: for emigration has advanced, and will, in the nature of things continue to advance, from east to west, as surely as the sun. The various emigrants who are pressing on to that domain, are already the founders of states, who are employed in clearing forests, building roads, draining marshes, deepening rivers, cultivating fields, establishing free communities upon the ruins of the wilderness and in widening the domain of knowledge and civilization. The public lands, still constitute an important part of this domain; and we trust, that, they may uphold none but flourishing and vigorous states of our own government, and a population faithful to the cause of freedom and morality, religion, the laws and the Union.

The policy of the Union, unlike that of foreign governments, it is, doubtless, well known, is opposed to the possession of colonies separated from the parent state; and, in consequence, our national territory constitutes one broad continuous domain. It happens, fortunately, that those parts which are the most fertile, are situated in the interior; while the sterile portion, favorable for commerce and manufactures, by its seaports and water-power, comprises the frontier. This economical disposition of the territory, most directly favors the entire colonization of the country. The states and territories containing the public lands, constitute the most fertile part of the Union. They produce in great abundance, throughout *their different* portions, cotton, wheat, sugar, tobacco and most of the

cereal grains. They must continue to furnish, in future time, as they now do, the great bulk of agricultural staples for consumption and commercial export. They provide to actual settlers, at a cheap rate, the most productive soil and homes for themselves and their families, where they can exercise that most healthful of all occupations, agriculture—the solid basis of national strength, prosperity and contentment. A fertile soil, at a low price, and free scope to enterprise, is the richest blessing of a people and the strongest safeguard of a government; and it is a source of gratitude, that a field, broad and fertile enough for the agricultural enterprise of the nation, is spread out within the present established boundaries of the Union. The older states are yet but sparsely populated, when compared with other countries; and there are immense tracts of soil owned by individuals, remaining in their original solitude, and hundreds of millions of acres more, belonging to the government, that will require centuries to subdue to proper cultivation.

Art. II.—ENGLISH COMMERCIAL LEGISLATION.

The early policy of England upon the subject of trade, was intended for the benefit of its own citizens. An examination of the various laws which were passed, show that there was not a general and well-matured plan; in fact, antagonist acts were often in force at the same time. There is, however, one feature in the early protective policy of England,—it was directed to the encouragement of labor, rather than capital. In this country, the protective system is the subject of fierce and ardent contests, and the question is yet to be settled, whether it shall be an object or an incident of legislation. By one class of politicians, the people are invited to direct the legislation of the country to the aid and support of particular branches of industry; the other class, maintain that the government has no authority to foster one pursuit, except it be done incidentally. They assert that, as legislation is unproductive, whatever is realized by one person above the natural reward of his labor, is unjustly taken from some other person or pursuit. The first contend, that the duties must be levied in such a manner as to aid domestic manufactures, whether the government derive a revenue or not; the latter contend, that the duties should be so levied as to furnish an adequate supply for the national treasury, and incidentally give such encouragement as may be consistent with the chief object. This question is increasing in general interest, and while the commercial relations of the world remain unchanged, it will continue to attract attention from the people and the government. However desirable it may be, to settle the policy of the country in a firm and judicious manner, that result is not to be expected until the question is separated from party strife. England is appealed to, by both parties; and her present business and social condition, is compelled to bear testimony for and against the same theory. So many causes have aided in depressing the people of Great Britain, that it is now impossible to point out the principal agent; and so different are the habits, pursuits and institutions, of the people of the United States, that any evidence deduced from the experience of England would fail in its application to them. Yet an examination of her legislative history, may show the errors which she has com-

mitted, and furnish a reasonable apprehension that a similar policy would be hazardous, if not positively injurious. The evidences of national sin are everywhere seen. In the princely livings of her churchmen, and the servitude of her peasantry; in the domains of her noblemen, and the huts of her starving poor; in the pageantry of royalty, and the contributions of labor for its support. Of one thing we are certain—the laboring population is sorely oppressed by taxes, duties and the inequalities of rank and property.

But this result should not lead us to reject, without examination, the whole of her extended policy; nor should we, from admiration of her unlimited national resources, great power and extended dominion, tread in her footsteps, without a satisfactory assurance that we shall advance the prosperity of the country. There should neither be a senseless irritation on the one hand, nor an unjust prejudice on the other. With all her faults and vices, England possesses sagacity, perseverance, skill and power. The latter quality is the least dangerous to us. There is much in her present condition, which the philanthropist and statesman may lament, and much will furnish the historian materials for the illumination of his pages. So also may the moralist and philosopher, in her extended web of virtue and vice, of learning and ignorance, of freedom and slavery, find occasion to arouse the dormant sensibilities or instruct the passive minds of the people. Our purpose is merely to present some extracts from the laws of England upon the subject of trade. Amid the wreck of feudal power, a crude foundation was laid of that policy which she has steadily pursued.

One of the chief objects of protection, was the woollen manufacture—yet it has not flourished more than the cotton manufacture. As early as the 25th Edward I., 1297, the male-toll or male-tent, of forty shillings, which had been previously levied upon every sack of wool, was removed. By this statute, the king promised to take no customs from merchants without the common assent of the realm, saving to him and his heirs, the customs on wool, skins and leather, formerly granted to him by the commonalty aforesaid. Sir Edward Coke supposes that the king's first claim to the customs, was by grant of parliament, 3d Edward I., though the record thereof is not now extant. The statute of 1297, was confirmed in 1306. In the 11th Edward III., 1337, the doctrine of protection was carried much farther, and was supported by laws more rigid and penal than the present age can boast. The statute was prohibitory, and intended, says Blackstone, for the encouragement of home manufactures. It was made felony to carry any wool out of the realm, and the people were not permitted to wear the cloth of any other country. So important was it considered to encourage the woollen trade, that the most arbitrary power was exercised—that of control over the tastes and customs of individuals. It was also provided, "that no clothes made beyond the seas should be brought into the king's dominions, upon the forfeiture of said clothes, and further to be punished at the king's will." These provisions were materially modified, by the statutes of 24th Henry VIII., c. 13, and 1st James I., c. 25. But these provisions went much beyond the legislation of the present day. All competition was destroyed, both in the price of wool and the price of goods. The manufacturer was at liberty to pay what he chose for the raw material, and to charge what he pleased for the manufactured article. The foreign trade in wool and woollens was entirely

destroyed. The people soon felt the force of the axiom, "a nation which will not buy, cannot sell." Hence, numerous laws were passed to encourage the export trade in horns, hides, leather, &c. Of these, we shall speak hereafter. They were, however, unavailing; and the provision of 1337, that no cloths should be worn but those made in England, was repealed by the statute of 18th Edward III., c. 3. The prohibitory and protective features of the law, were also entirely removed; and, in the 28th Edward III., the penalty of death for carrying wool over the sea was abolished. So paralyzing and destructive were those features esteemed, that it was declared that, "every man, as well stranger as privy, from henceforth may buy wools, according as they may agree with the seller, as they were wont before the said ordinances, (that is, those of 1337;) and that the sea be open to all manner of merchants to pass with their merchandise where it shall please them." In seven years, the government of England carried the doctrine of protection to the extreme point, and returned to the most liberal principles of free trade. Had the first law been more moderate, it might not so soon have been repealed. As it was, it could not possibly have been supported by any administration or people. It was most oppressive to the producers of the raw material, as by prohibiting its exportation, the manufacturers were left to control the price without competition. It is easy to see that the wool-growers were made to contribute largely to the profits of the manufacturers. On the other hand, by prohibiting the importation of woollen cloths, the manufacturers could obtain whatever they chose to ask for their goods. Of course, the wool was reduced to the lowest, and the goods were increased to the highest possible point. As the producers realized but little for their product, they were restricted in their means; and, as a consequence, the manufacturer found his market gradually and sensibly diminishing. The evil was first felt by the producer, but it reacted with increased vigor upon the manufacturer; and a measure, from which so much good was anticipated, resulted in such universal injury as to cause its repeal.

After the disastrous results of the statute of 1337, had been fully developed, the protective policy appears to have been abandoned, or, at least, to have been maintained in a more moderate form, until the middle of the sixteenth century. In the eighth year of Elizabeth, a statute was passed entitled "an act touching cloth-workers and clothes ready wrought to be shipped over sea." This act provided, "that henceforth for every nine clothes unwrought, hereafter to be shipped or carried into any parts beyond the seas, there shall be shipped and carried over, also, one piece of woollen cloth of like sort, length, breadth and goodness, ready wrought and dressed." This law appears to have been passed for the two-fold purpose, of affording occupation for the cloth-workers, and procuring a demand for the manufactured article abroad, by compelling the merchants to export wrought cloths, whether it were an advantageous business or not. But the most prominent feature, is the change which two centuries had produced in the policy of the government. The act of 1337, *prohibited the importation* of foreign cloths; the act of 1566, *enjoined the exportation* of domestic cloths. This change in legislation cannot be accounted for upon any other supposition, than that the experience of that interval had rendered the English so skilful in this branch of business, as not only to place them above the competition of foreigners, but to make them successful competitors in the *markets* of other countries. Even as early

as the 50th Edward III., so great proficiency had been made, and the exportation of cloths had increased so much, as to cause the passage of an act forbidding merchants to export cloths until they were fulled; and this change had been effected without the aid of protection. The only encouragement which the government had rendered, was a simple permission, that cloth-workers and merchants might have safe conduct through the kingdom.

In the 18th Charles II., 1666, a law was passed for the encouragment of woollen manufactures, which provided that all the dead should be buried in *woollen only*, except those who died of the plague. In the 30th of the same reign, the act was confirmed with penalties. If any other fabric than woollen was used, the nearest relation was liable to a penalty of five pounds, and in case the deceased had no relation, the clergymen were made liable.

Other efforts were made, before the revolution of 1688, to aid particular pursuits and branches of industry. Navigation has always been considered one of the most important branches of British enterprise, and the legislation of the country has been directed to its encouragement. In the 5th Richard II., 1381, it was declared, by statute, that "none of the king's subjects shall carry forth, nor bring any merchandise, but only in ships of the king's allegiance." This act, confined the commerce of the country to its own citizens, and contains the principles of protection to the shipping interests, which are now acted upon by most commercial nations.

In the 16th Charles I., an act which prohibited the importation of gunpowder was repealed. The preamble of the repealing statute was in these words: "Whereas the importation of gunpowder from foreign parts, hath of late times been against law prohibited, and the making of it within this realm ingrossed, whereby the price of gunpowder hath been excessively raised, many powder-works decayed, this kingdom very much weakened and endangered, the merchants thereof much damaged," &c., &c. If this language truly sets forth the effects of protection, they were very different from those claimed for it at the present day. The price of the protected article was increased, rather than diminished; the persons engaged in the pursuit, were impoverished, not enriched; and the country was weakened and endangered, rather than made strong, secure or prosperous. This law was entirely prohibitory, and, in this respect, it differed from the more recent statutes which have been passed for the aid of industry. But the singular results which the preamble declares to have followed the prohibitory statute, can only be accounted for upon the supposition, that the art of making gunpowder was so little known, that even a control of the market failed to perfect the business; otherwise, the powder-works would not have decayed, nor the country been weakened and endangered, though the consumers might have been exorbitantly taxed for the article.

By statute 12th, Charles II., the exportation of wool, wool-fells, mostlings, shorlings, and yarn made of wool, was prohibited. It appears to have been the object to secure the business of manufacturing cloth and dressing skins to the inhabitants of the kingdom. But the effect must have been to reduce the price of the raw material, injure the producers, and of course, to drive a portion of them to manufactures, so that in reality, neither class could have been benefited. And further, by diminishing *the income of* producers, their ability to purchase goods was proportion-

ately diminished, and thus followed the two-fold evil of increasing the manufacture and lessening the demand. Freedom of trade increases the ability of both parties to purchase and use, while restrictions, either moderate or stringent, confine, paralyze and destroy.

In the same year, the growth of tobacco, in England, was prohibited. The statute says, that "it obstructed the vent of English commodities to America." There was no necessity for this law, as the production of tobacco, in England, would never have materially lessened the American trade. But we have referred to the statute to show, that its policy was essentially different from that of the protective system generally. That system, in its pure and extreme form, would have proposed that the growth of tobacco should have been encouraged in England by giving a bounty on the domestic production, or by laying a duty on the colonial importation. This policy, in either form, would have been fatal to the American trade. The ships engaged in the carrying business, would have been thrown out of employment; manufacturers, finding that their market was cut off, would have discharged their workmen; the colonies would have been deprived of their customary supply of the necessaries of life; while the English producers of tobacco would have learned, that that pursuit is the most profitable which springs naturally from the soil and climate of the country, and tastes and habits of the people.

In the 1st Elizabeth, the importation of "girdlers, cutlers, sadlers, glovers, point-makers and such like handicraftsmen," was prohibited. Intimately connected with this statute, was one passed by the 2d Elizabeth, entitled "an act against carrying over seas, sheepskins and pelts, not being staple ware." This act prohibited the exportation of "any manner of sheepskin, or the skins of any stag, hind, doe, goat, fawn or kid, to any part over the seas;" and was passed, as declared in the preamble, for "reformation of many griefs, lamentably declared this present parliament, by divers artificers of this realm working leather." By a statute of 14th Elizabeth, the act was revived for seven years, and its violation was visited with confiscation of the vessel in which the prohibited articles were transported. In the 20th Charles II., the act was repealed. A statute 7th James I., prohibited the exportation of horns. The preamble says, "that the people of strange lands have come into this land, and have bought by the hands of their hosts and guides, the great and chief stuff of horns unwrought, to the final prejudice of a great number of men being of the occupation of horners." The evil was, that the horns were exported *unwrought*, to the injury of those who were engaged in the manufacture; yet the measure, if advantageous to this class, must have operated with great severity upon the producers. What was intended to be protection to one, was destruction to another. The policy of Elizabeth, with some slight variations, was revived in the 14th of Charles II. The acts of Elizabeth prohibited the exportation of hides, but it was now thought necessary to prohibit the exportation of leather. The preamble declared, that "notwithstanding the many good laws heretofore enacted, such quantities of leather are daily exported to foreign parts, that the price of leather is grown to those excessive rates, that many artificers, working leather, cannot furnish themselves with sufficient store thereof, for the carrying on of their trades; and the poor sort of people are not able to buy those things made of leather, which of necessity they make use of."

Very few of the *advocates of* the protective system, would sustain a

measure of this character, yet it was eminently one of protection. If the system be sound, the former classes are entitled to its benefits; and especially is this the case, when, from any cause whatever, an article of positive necessity has so advanced in price as to place it beyond their reach. When the foreign demand for leather had increased the price so much as to deprive the poorer classes of its use, King Charles thought it prudent to check a trade which was so injurious to a portion of his subjects. So the United States, apprehensive that the manufacturers will be ruined by the influx of foreign goods, restrict, or entirely prohibit their importation. Both measures are alike protective, but the benefits are enjoyed by different classes of citizens. Charles intended to aid the poorer classes, but his measure must have produced more injury than good by destroying the export trade in leather, and, of course, diminishing the wealth of the country. A small export demand, by withdrawing the surplus, will often render the balance of more value than the whole stock, if all were retained in the country. This feature of trade has been observed to some extent in the shipment of cotton goods, which have been made from this country to the East Indies and China. Were this country to carry out the protective policy to every branch of industry, and make it conform to the varying condition of trade, the exportation of cotton goods would be prohibited, inasmuch as the poorer classes are compelled to pay a higher price for those articles which have become necessaries.

Though the early policy of England was restricted in some respects, there was still a spirit of freedom in her early legislation, and her growth was materially accelerated by those statutes which aided the agricultural, gave life and energy to the commercial, and were in no degree injurious to the manufacturing interest. Of this character was a statute passed in the 9th Edward III., 1335. It provided that "all merchants, strangers, and denizens, and all other, and every of them, of what state or condition soever they be, that will buy or sell corn, wines, flesh, fish, and all other livings and victuals, from whencesoever they come, by foreigners or denizens, at what place soever they be, city, borough, town, port of the sea, fair, market, or elsewhere, within this realm, within franchise or without, may freely, without interruption, sell them to what persons it shall please them, as well to foreigners as denizens." This statute was confirmed 14th Edward III. By a statute 3d Henry VI., c. 4, permission was given for the transportation of butter and cheese, with a license, and in the 18th Henry VI., without a license. In the 8th of Elizabeth, a statute was passed which declared, "that herring and sea-fish, might be exported from England, free of all customs," which had not for a long period before, been the case. This statute having been limited to four years, was revived 13th Elizabeth, 1570. The reason given was, "that the said act had been a very good act, and greatly increased the navy and fishermen, and causeth many poor men to be set a-work, and is in great likelihood to increase it more and more."

Statute 17th Edward I., c. 3, 1288, declared that, "none of our justices, nor any of our other ministers, by color of their office, shall arrest ships, but merchants and others may carry corn, &c., to all places, saving to our enemies of Scotland, paying such customs due and used." This is probably the oldest statute in existence upon the subject, and shows that the early policy of England was directed to the exportation of corn, *and that the government* had no fear of competition. The exception

against their enemies of Scotland, was, according to the rules of modern as well as ancient warfare, by which citizens are not allowed to furnish their enemies with the means of subsistence. By this act, no protection was given to the consumers of bread, and a heavy export demand might have increased the price to an enormous rate. But the main features of the statute were changed by one of 34th Edward III., 1360, which prohibited the transportation of corn to any place but Calais and Gascoign. These were two provinces, one in the north and the other in the south of France, subject to the king of England. But this measure did not favor the interests of the producers, which were then, as now, a class of great influence, and in thirty years during the reign of Richard II., an act was passed which permitted "all the king's subjects to carry corn out of the realm."

In the 15th of Henry VI., 1435, the free exportation of corn was materially restrained, it being permitted only when the price was very low, viz: wheat at six shillings eight pence, and barley at three shillings per quarter. The passage of this act probably suggested the statute of 3d Edward III., 1463, which forbade the *importation* of corn until it reached a certain price. Their object was to prevent a scarcity on the one hand, and an injurious foreign competition on the other. Nothing is more common, than to hear the friends of protection denounce the policy of England; yet if a good reason can be given in favor of the system, as an independent object of government, that reason may be urged in defence of the English corn laws.

As will readily be seen, there was no system or settled plan of legislation in the various statutes, which were passed for the benefit of particular professions or branches of industry. At one time, wool-growers were protected; at another, the manufacturers were the favorites of legislation. Many of the acts to which we have referred, were opposed to the provisions of the great charter of 9th Henry III., c. 30.

The charter declared that "all merchants (if they were not openly prohibited before) shall have their safe and sure conduct to depart out of England, as well by land as by water, to buy and sell without any manner of evil costs by the old and rightful customs, except in time of war. And then, if they be of a land making war against us, and be found in our realm at the beginning of the wars, they shall be attached without hurt of body or goods, until it be known unto us, or our chief justice, how our merchants be intreated there in the land making war against us; and if our merchants be well intreated there, theirs shall be likewise with us."

The doctrine of retaliation was also observed, in levying duties upon goods brought from foreign countries. By statute 29th Elizabeth, c. 10, it was declared, "that all aliens and strangers, shall, from henceforth, and from time to time, pay to her majesty, for all salted fish and salted herring to be brought into this realm, all such customs and impositions, as are, or shall be imposed and set upon any of her majesty's subjects in those foreign regions and countries, ports and towns, from whence the salted fish and herrings shall be shipped and brought, for the like fishes and herrings, over and besides the ordinary customs which have been paid to her majesty for the same."

Protection was carried so far as to infringe directly upon individual rights. The statute of 2d Edward III., specified who might wear furs. In 1340, the privilege was limited to noblemen and members of the royal

family. A statute of 8th Henry VI., declared that none should sell to merchant aliens except for ready pay in gold and silver. Its tendency was to restrict trade, as the precious metals were scarce and exceedingly valuable. The object was the same with those more specific acts, which prohibited the exportation of gold and silver. This was attempted in the 27th Henry VI., and in numerous previous acts. A mistaken idea has prevailed, and is not now removed, that that legislation which shall forcibly detain gold and silver in a country, is calculated to benefit its citizens. The truth is, that the free importation and exportation of the precious metals should never be restrained. They form a financial thermometer by which the monetary condition of the country is known. Whenever the balance of trade is against a country, there should be no check to the exportation of bullion, as it is a warning to men in trade that a revulsion is approaching. The statute of 8th Henry VI., was so modified in the succeeding year, that aliens were allowed six months' credit upon the goods which they purchased. In the time of Edward III., the law prescribed the kind of cloths which should be worn by the different grades of citizens, and compelled the manufacturers to furnish a sufficient quantity of each sort of goods. As early as Edward II., the officers of cities were forbidden to sell wine or victuals. In the 3d of James I., an act was passed for the relief of what were termed *skinners*. It prohibited any merchant dressing coney skins, or transporting them undressed, the business having been granted to the East Land Company, in the 21st of Elizabeth.

The idea of raising a revenue, and at the same time affording encouragement to industry, is a modern discovery. The early English laws sought to protect the labor of the people, by strict prohibitions of those articles and workmen which would produce or encourage competition. But the concessions of power and revenue which were wrung from the crown, and the accountability which the people required through parliament, so crippled the resources of the throne, that the present system of levying duties on imports was introduced. Various acts were passed for this purpose. Among them, were that of 1st James II., and 1st William and Mary. The former was confined to wine, tobacco, ale, beer, &c.; the latter included imports and exports generally.

In the effort to control and encourage trade and production, by statutes, the wages of the laborer did not escape notice. The hours which artificers and laborers should work, and the time for meals and sleep, were determined by a statute 6th Henry VIII. By an act 1st James I., it was provided, that "the justices of the peace in the several counties, on the 12th of July, in each year, shall determine and declare throughout the county, the price which every artificer and laborer should receive for his work, the price being determined by the price of other articles. A clothier, being a justice of the peace, shall be no rater of wages for any weaver, tucker, spinster or other artisan, that dependeth upon the making of cloth."

It will be seen that the early laws of England upon trade, were destitute of any common feature. In one reign, one course of policy was pursued, and in another reign, the policy was completely changed. But few of the measures were successful, and those were injurious to all those who were not directly benefited.

ART. III.—TRADE AND COMMERCE OF THE NEW YORK CANALS.

THE commissioners of the canal fund of New York are directed, by the act of the 26th of April, 1831, to prepare and lay before the legislature, in each year, a statement of all the tolls collected on all the canals of the state, during the season of navigation, the rates of toll on all articles transported on the canals, and a comparative statement, showing the amount fixed by the constitution and the amount charged. In connection with the statements, required by this act, the commissioners have, for a series of years, prepared statements, showing the tolls on, the tons and value of all the property shipped at each office and passing on the canals, and the tons and value of each article at tide water; and statements of the tons and value of each article, arriving from or going to other states, or to Canada, with other information necessary to show the increase or diminution, for a series of years, of the tolls and tonnage of any article or class of articles, and the increase or diminution of the total tonnage of the canals. The tonnage of the canals, whether in boats or rafts, having reference to its source, naturally falls under five general heads of classification, as follows: 1st, the products of the forest; 2d, agriculture; 3d, manufactures; 4th, merchandise; 5th, other articles. It is in reference to this division of the commerce of the canals, that several of the tables, in the canal commissioners report, of 1843, have been made out. They have instituted a comparison, for a series of years, of the tons, value and tolls, of each head of transportation above given, in view, doubtless, of ascertaining the increase or diminution of the tons, value or tolls, of the total movement.

We have prepared, from the reports of the commissioners of 1841, 1842 and 1843, the following table, which exhibits a comparative view of the amount of toll received on each canal, during the season of navigation, in each of those years, as follows:—

CANALS.	1843.	1842.	1841.
Erie,	$1,880,314 55	$1,568,946 56	$1,813,650 58
Champlain,	102,308 50	95,957 54	117,841 14
Oswego,	36,203 93	31,222 19	38,344 22
Cayuga and Seneca,	19,417 38	16,948 16	23,583 37
Chemung,	9,726 56	7,702 05	9,396 42
Crooked Lake,	1,328 18	989 39	2,017 32
Chenango,	16,194 75	13,615 38	18,815 48
Genesee Valley,	15,291 78	13,204 11	9,927 69
Oneida Lake,	507 74	462 63	462 02
Seneca River Towing Path,	296 80	149 51	844 58
Total,	$2,081,590 17	$1,749,119 52	$2,034,882 82

There is, it will be noticed, an increase in the tolls of 1843, compared with the year 1842, of $332,394. Of this increase, $209,820 or 63 per cent, is on descending, and $122,574 or 36 per cent, is on ascending freight.

The following embraces the merchandise and all other articles going from, as well as the products coming to tide-water. From this table, it appears, that the total tons of all descriptions of merchandise which moved on the canals, amounted to 1,518,439 tons, and the total value of the same, to $76,276,909.

The total movements of property on all the canals, for the year of navigation, of 1843, showing the value at the place of shipment, the tons of, and tolls on each article, is given in the following statement:—

TONS AND VALUE OF ARTICLES TRANSPORTED ON THE CANALS, IN 1843.

Articles.	Quantity.	Tons.	Value.	Tolls.
BOATS.				
Toll at 2 cents,.....	.....	.....	.....	$131,734
Toll on packets,.....	.....	.....	.....	19,091
Total boats,.....	.....	.....	.....	$150,825
PASSENGERS.				
Statements, and reported,.....	.....	.....	.....	$5,179
Total passengers,.....	.....	.....	.....	$5,179
THE FOREST.				
Fur and peltry,.....lbs.	2,704,000	1,352	$1,257,346	$2,935
Product of Wood.				
Boards and scantling,.....feet	203,733,000	339,555	2,999,880	141,234
Shingles,.....M.	79,893	11,984	137,627	15,003
Timber,.....cubic feet	2,591,850	51,837	198,365	27,440
Staves,.....lbs.	65,364,000	32,682	220,947	37,583
Wood,.....cords	80,209	229,586	149,208	15,254
Ashes,.....bbls.	80,752	20,188	1,689,707	51,306
Total forest,.....tons	.....	687,184	$6,653,080	$290,755
AGRICULTURE.				
Product of Animals.				
Pork,.....bbls.	85,433	12,815	$789,863	$32,012
Beef,.....	54,386	8,158	304,241	18,700
Cheese,.....lbs.	25,500,000	12,750	1,209,245	16,397
Butter and lard,.....	20,790,000	10,395	1,779,615	22,394
Wool,.....	7,594,000	3,797	2,168,702	6,280
Total product of animals,....tons	.....	47,915	$6,251,666	$95,786
Vegetable Food.				
Flour,.....bbls.	2,321,611	250,734	$9,703,623	$629,103
Wheat,.....bush.	3,132,300	93,969	2,684,096	102,713
Rye,.....	65,871	1,581	31,548	891
Corn,.....	287,033	8,611	122,866	14,935
Barley,.....	521,458	12,515	196,164	18,247
Other grain,.....	859,866	19,347	252,656	25,736
Bran and ship-stuffs,.....	1,008,800	10,088	75,121	15,426
Peas and beans,.....	14,100	423	11,532	644
Potatoes,.....	41,600	1,040	8,359	905
Dried fruit,.....lbs.	2,056,000	1,028	66,504	1,998
Total vegetable food,.....tons	.....	399,336	$13,152,469	$810,598
All other Agricultural Products.				
Cotton,.....lbs.	4,556,000	2,278	$387,000	$2,762
Tobacco,.....	4,242,000	2,121	407,352	4,747
Clover and grass-seed,.....	4,302,000	2,151	245,152	6,454
Flax-seed,.....	3,030,000	1,515	53,140	1,885
Hops,.....	962,000	481	91,339	478
Total all other ag. products,.tons	.....	8,546	$1,183,983	$16,326
Total agriculture,.....tons	.....	455,797	$20,588,118	$922,710

TONS AND VALUE OF ARTICLES TRANSPORTED ON THE CANALS, IN 1843—Continued.

Articles.	Quantity.	Tons.	Value.	Tolls.
MANUFACTURES.				
Domestic spirits,.....gallons	1,076,400	5,382	$249,522	$8,935
Leather,.....lbs.	2,608,000	1,304	588,175	1,417
Furniture,.....	16,906,000	8,453	1,730,153	16,563
Bar and pig lead,.....	1,910,000	955	62,758	2,799
Pig iron,.....	9,706,000	4,853	131,995	4,521
Ironware,.....	6,534,000	3,267	247,210	5,872
Domestic woollens,.....	748,000	374	678,778	396
Domestic cottons,.....	1,516,000	758	470,669	830
Salt,.....bbls.	659,540	98,931	766,285	51,898
Total manufactures,.....tons	.....	124,277	$4,925,545	$93,231
Merchandise,.....lbs.	238,418,000	119,209	$40,651,798	$502,617
Other Articles.				
Stone, lime and clay,.....lbs.	102,438,000	51,219	$212,655	$9,589
Gypsum,.....	34,972,000	17,486	57,992	5,029
Mineral coal,.....	40,542,000	20,271	92,562	32,588
Sundries,.....	75,992,000	37,996	3,095,159	69,067
Total other articles,.....tons	.....	126,972	$3,458,368	$116,273
Grand total,.....tons	.....	1,513,439	$76,276,909	$2,081,590

The total tonnage of all the property transported on the New York canals, ascending and descending, its value and the amount of tolls collected for six years, from 1836 to 1842, inclusive, is given in Vol. VIII., p. 527, of this Magazine. For 1843, it was as follows :—

Year.	Tons.	Value.	Tolls.
1843,.....	1,513,439	$76,276,909	$2,081,590 00

The total tons coming to tide-water, for each of the ten years from 1834 to 1842, and the aggregate value thereof, in market, is also given in this Magazine, Vol. VIII., p. 527. In 1843, it was 836,861 tons, valued at $28,453,408.

We also gave in the same number of the Merchants' Magazine, a statement of the whole quantity of wheat and flour, that came to the Hudson river, from 1834 to 1842, inclusive, with the aggregate market value of the same, and the amount of tolls received on all the wheat and flour transported on the canals, from 1837 to 1842, inclusive. We now add a similar statement, for 1843, as follows :—

Year.	Tons.	Value.	Tolls.
1843,.....	248,780	$10,283,454	$731,816

The number of tons going from tide-water, in 1843, is as follows, viz :—

Cleared at	Merchandise. *Tons.*	Furniture. *Tons.*	Other articles. *Tons.*	Total. *Tons.*
Albany,.....	46,440	1,888	9,581	57,909
West Troy,.....	66,841	1,089	16,735	84,665
Schenectady,.....	405	253	363	1,021
Total,.....	113,686	3,230	26,679	143,595

The number of tons coming to tide-water, in 1843, is as follows, viz :—

Arrived at	Erie Canal. Tons.	Champlain Canal. Tons.	Total. Tons.
Albany,	363,580	77,453	441,033
West Troy,	269,187	124,083	393,270
Waterford,	.....	2,558	2,558
	632,767	204,094	836,861
Add the number of tons going from tide-water,			143,595
Total number of tons ascending and descending,			980,456

187 tons came over the railroad from Schenectady, which is not included in the above.

There is an increase of merchandise going up the canals, of 19,473 tons, and an increase in the quantity of other articles of 828 tons; making a total increase in the ascending tons, comparing 1842 with 1843, of 20,301 tons.

The tons coming to tide-water have increased 170,235, comparing 1843 with 1842.

The merchandise cleared at Albany, West Troy, and Schenectady, in 1843, (113,686 tons,) was left on the several canals in the following proportions, viz :—

Canals.	Tons.	Canals.	Tons.
Erie,	74,035	Crooked Lake,	1,496
Champlain,	13,152	Chenango,	2,883
Oswego,	11,607	Genesee Valley,	2,856
Cayuga and Seneca,	6,310		
Chemung,	1,347	Total,	113,686

In our article on the canal commerce of New York, published in the Merchants' Magazine, for December, 1843, we stated on the authority of the canal commissioners report, that large quantities of the products of the western states, pass over the canals of New York, by way of Buffalo, Black Rock, Oswego, &c., and gave several official tables, illustrative of the statement, one of which embraced a statement of the tons and different classes of property, coming from other states, and shipped at Buffalo and Black Rock, during the six years, from 1836 to 1842, inclusive; we now add the amount, for 1843, coming from other states, by way of Buffalo and Black Rock, as follows :—

Year.	Products of the forest.	Agriculture.	Manufactures.	Other articles.	Tot. tons.
1843,.....	31,211	172,258	2,026	2,751	208,246

The tonnage of property coming from other states, by way of Oswego, in 1843, is as follows :—

Year.	Products of forest.	Agriculture.	Manufactures.	Other articles.	Total tons.
1843,.....	5,564	12,207	51	118	17,940

The tons of wheat and flour, shipped at Buffalo and Oswego, in 1843, and the total tons of wheat and flour, which arrived at the Hudson river, were as follows :—

Year.	Buffalo. Tons.	Black Rock. Tons.	Oswego. Tons.	Total. Tons.	Tot. tons arriv'd at tide-w'tr.
1843,.....	146,126	12,882	5,358	184,866	248,780

The following is a statement of the quantity of merchandise and furniture going to other states, by the way of Buffalo, in 1843 :—

Year.	Merchandise. Tons.	Furniture. Tons.
1843,.....	32,798	3,613

The merchandise and furniture going to other states, by way of Buffalo, during the year 1843, was distributed as follows, viz :—

States, &c.	Furniture. Tons.	Mdze. Tons.	States, &c.	Furniture. Tons.	Mdze. Tons.
Pennsylvania,.....	763	26	Missouri,.....	65	3
Ohio,.....	14,528	692	Tennessee,.....	35	2
Michigan,.....	8,252	746	Alabama,.....	2	.
Indiana,.....	2,256	126	Iowa,.....	28	12
Illinois,.....	3,476	638	Canada,.....	75	47
Wisconsin,.....	2,890	1,315			
Kentucky,.....	428	6	Total,.....	32,798	3,613

The following table, compiled from the returns of the collector at Buffalo, shows the quantity of wheat, flour, beef and pork, and pot and pearl ashes, coming from other states, and cleared at that office, on the Erie canal, during the year 1843 :—

From	Bushels of wheat.	Barrels of flour.	Bbls. of beef and pork.	Bbls. pot and pearl ashes.
Pennsylvania,.....	488	91	51	1,886
Ohio,.....	748,004	528,751	45,315	16,914
Michigan,.....	245,365	307,580	6,234	11,881
Indiana,.....	175,098	29,721	5,681	811
Illinois,.....	444,961	11,998	16,459	17
Wisconsin,.....	75,864	718	842	306
Total,.....	1,689,780	878,859	74,564	31.815

The tons of the total movement of articles on all the canals, from 1836 to 1843, is as follows :—

Year.	Products of forest. Tons.	Agriculture. Tons.	Manufactures. Tons.	Merchandise. Tons.	Other articles. Tons.	Total. Tons.
1836,.....	755,252	225,747	88,810	127,895	113,103	1,310,807
1837,.....	618,741	208,043	81,735	94,777	168,000	1,171,296
1838,.....	665,069	255,227	101,526	124,290	186,879	1,333,011
1839,.....	667,581	266,052	111,968	132,286	257,826	1,435,713
1840, G. V. C. opened,....	587,647	393,780	100,367	112,021	222,231	1,416,046
1841,.....	645,548	391,905	127,896	141,054	215,258	1,521,661
1842,.....	504,597	401,276	98,968	101,446	130,644	1,236,931
1843,.....	687,184	455,797	124,277	119,209	126,972	1,513,439
Total for 8 years,.....	5,131,639	2,597,827	835,547	952,978	1,420,913	10,938,904
Yearly av. for 8 years,....	641,455	324,728	104,443	119,122	177,614	1,367,363
Per cent of each class,....	46.91	23.75	7.64	8.71	12.99	100
Annual average from 1836 to 1839, 4 years,.....	676,666	238,767	96,010	119,812	181,452	1,312,707
Annual average from 1840 to 1843, 4 years,.....	606,244	410,690	112,877	118,432	173,776	1,422,019

The annual average of the tons of the total movement of articles on all the canals, is as follows :—

From 1836 to 1839, 4 years,.....	1,312,707
" 1840 to 1843, 4 "	1,422,019
Increase, tons,.....	109,312

The average increase or decrease of each class of articles, which results in the above total increase, is as follows :—

Class of Articles.	Decrease. *Tons.*	Increase. *Tons.*
Products of the forest,.....	70,422	....
Agriculture,.....	....	171,923
Manufactures,.....	....	16,867
Merchandise,.....	1,380	....
Other articles,.....	7,676	....
	79,478	188,790
		79,478
Increase,.....		109,312

The tolls paid on the "total movement" of articles, and upon boats and passengers annually, from 1837 to 1843, both years inclusive, are as follows :—

Year.	Boats and pass'ng'rs.	Products of the forest.	Agriculture.	Manufactures.	Other articles.	Total.
1837,.....	$195,508	$211,118	$370,041	$75,507	$380,826	$56,430
1838,.....	210,457	229,998	468,495	74,941	526,911	78,555
1839,.....	181,323	253,710	479,534	81,251	535,486	83,662
1840, G. V. C. opened,	185,022	197,904	808,623	75,765	427,966	80,467
1841,.....	179,819	313,444	785,943	95,595	558,003	102,078
1842,.....	165,515	211,979	805,376	70,611	393,875	101,840
1843,.....	156,004	290,755	922,710	93,231	502,617	116,273
Total for 7 years,....	1,273,648	1,708,908	4,640,722	566,901	3,325,684	619,305
Yearly average,.....	181,949	244,130	662,960	80,986	475,098	88,472
Per ct. of each class,	10.09	14.08	38.24	4.68	27.41	5.10
Average from 1837 to 1839, 3 years,...	195,763	231,609	439,356	77,233	481,074	72,882
Average from 1840 to 1843, 4 years,...	171,590	253,521	830,663	83,801	470,615	100,160

The annual average of the tolls paid on the total movement of articles, and upon boats and passengers, is as follows :—

From 1837 to 1839, 3 years,.....	$1,497,917
" 1840 to 1843, 4 "	1,910,354
Increase,.....	$412,437

The increase or decrease in the tolls on each class of articles, &c., which results in the above increase, is as follows :—

Class of Articles, &c.	Decrease. *Tolls.*	Increase. *Tolls.*
Boats and passengers,.....	$24,173	....
Products of the forest,.....	....	$21,912
Agriculture,.....	....	391,307
Manufactures,.....	....	6,568

Class of Articles, &c.	Decrease. *Tolls.*	Increase. *Tolls.*
Merchandise,.....	$10,459	....
Other articles,.....	....	$27,282
	$34,632	$447,069
		34,632
Increase,.....		$412,437

In all reports heretofore made by the canal commissioners, showing the tonnage arriving at tide-water in each year, the Champlain canal has never been separated from the Erie canal, so as to show the character and quantity of tonnage coming from each canal.

For the first time, the separation is now made; and the following statements show, under general heads, the description and number of tons delivered at West Troy and Albany, in the last nine years, from each canal:—

STATEMENT,

Showing the tons of each class of articles delivered at Albany, from 1835 *to* 1843, *both years inclusive, and coming from the Champlain Canal.*

Year.	Products of the forest. *Tons.*	Agriculture. *Tons.*	Manufactures. *Tons.*	Mdze. *Tons.*	Other articles. *Tons.*	Total. *Tons.*
1835,.....	107,321	602	107	2	1,134	109,166
1836,.....	124,731	574	111	.	1,897	127,313
1837,.....	100,547	342	105	2	4,908	105,904
1838,.....	107,820	672	157	.	2,888	111,537
1839,.....	91,311	998	96	4	3,158	95,567
1840,.....	77,100	1,122	120	2	1,869	80,213
1841,.....	94,728	630	210	.	2,711	98,279
1842,.....	98,035	1,006	252	.	4,037	103,380
1843,.....	71,658	1,948	122	4	3,701	77,433
Total,.....	873,251	7,894	1,280	14	26,303	908,742

STATEMENT,

Showing the tons of each class of articles delivered at West Troy, from 1835 *to* 1843, *both years inclusive, and coming from the Champlain Canal.*

Year.	Products of the forest. *Tons.*	Agriculture. *Tons.*	Manufactures. *Tons.*	Merchandise. *Tons.*	Other articles. *Tons.*	Total. *Tons.*
1835,.....	132,937	2,904	1,550	28	8,767	146,186
1836,.....	134,758	6,556	1,989	20	6,586	149,909
1837,.....	102,826	5,409	1,669	36	8,431	118,371
1838,.....	94,093	7,445	1,101	40	7,016	109,695
1839,.....	100,681	7,705	1,783	90	10,035	120,294
1840,.....	104,025	6,811	1,890	76	8,682	121,484
1841,.....	116,847	3,690	4,903	13	18,082	143,535
1842,.....	66,754	4,243	5,357	42	6,751	83,147
1843,.....	104,930	5,224	5,829	63	8,037	124,083
Total,	957,851	49,987	26,071	408	82,387	1,116,704

STATEMENT,

Showing the tons of each class of articles which come to the Hudson river, from the Erie Canal, from 1835 *to* 1843, *both years inclusive.*

Year.	Products of the forest. *Tons.*	Agriculture. *Tons.*	Manufactures. *Tons.*	Mdze. *Tons.*	Other articles. *Tons.*	Total. *Tons.*
1835,.....	299,944	167,448	7,191	2,055	21,201	497,839
1836,.....	214,179	165,870	10,806	1,156	27,114	419,125

STATEMENT,

Showing the tons of each class of articles which came to the Hudson river, from the Erie Canal, from 1835 *to* 1843, *both years inclusive*—Continued.

Year.	Products of the forest. *Tons.*	Agriculture. *Tons.*	Manufactures. *Tons.*	Mdze. *Tons.*	Other articles. *Tons.*	Total. *Tons.*
1837,.....	181,644	145,718	8,350	356	51,438	387,506
1838,.....	198,964	174,025	7,999	258	38,773	419,949
1839,.....	185,728	155,089	6,686	405	38,366	386,967
1840,.....	140,584	294,423	6,655	26	25,627	467,315
1841,.....	237,520	265,920	12,778	142	16,160	532,520
1842,.....	156,691	287,998	10,406	143	24,981	480,149
1843,.....	239,585	338,968	23,542	134	33,116	635,345
Total for 9 years,.....	1,854,839	1,995,382	93,643	4,675	276,776	4,225,315
Yearly average,.....	206,093	221,709	10,405	519	30,753	469,479
Per cent of each class,...	43.89	47.23	2.22	.11	6.55	100
Av. from '35 to '38, 4 yrs.,	223,683	163,265	8,394	956	34,631	430,930
Av. from '39 to '43, 5 yrs.,	192,021	268,464	12,013	170	27,650	500,319

The annual average of the total tons arrived at the Hudson river, from the Erie canal, is as follows:—

From 1839 to 1843, 5 years,.....	500,319
" 1835 to 1838, 4 "	430,930
Increase, tons,.....	69,389

The average increase or decrease of each class of articles, for the same period, which results in the above total increase, is as follows:—

Class of Articles.	Decrease. *Tons.*	Increase. *Tons.*
Products of the forest,.....	31,662	....
Agriculture,.....	....	105,199
Manufactures,.....	....	8,619
Merchandise,.....	786	....
Other articles,.....	6,981	....
	39,429	108,818
		39,429
Increase,.....		69,389

STATEMENT,

Showing the tons of each class of articles which came to the Hudson river from the Champlain Canal, from 1835 *to* 1843, *both years inclusive.*

Year.	Products of the forest. *Tons.*	Agriculture. *Tons.*	Manufactures. *Tons.*	Mdze. *Tons.*	Other articles. *Tons.*	Total. *Tons.*
1835,.....	240,258	3,506	1,657	30	9,901	255,352
1836,.....	259,489	7,130	2,100	20	8,483	277,222
1837,.....	203,373	5,751	1,774	38	13,339	224,275
1838,.....	201,913	8,117	1,258	40	9,904	221,232
1839,.....	191,992	8,703	1,879	94	13,193	215,861
1840,.....	181,125	7,933	2,010	78	10,551	201,697
1841,.....	211,575	4,320	5,113	13	20,793	241,814

STATEMENT,

Showing the tons of each class of articles which came to the Hudson river, from the Champlain Canal, from 1835 *to* 1843, *both years inclusive*—Continued.

Year.	Products of the forest. *Tons.*	Agriculture. *Tons.*	Manufactures. *Tons.*	Mdze. *Tons.*	Other articles. *Tons.*	Total. *Tons.*
1842,.....	164,789	5,249	5,609	42	10,788	186,477
1843,.....	176,588	7,172	5,951	67	11,738	201,516
Total for 9 years,.....	1,831,102	57,881	27,351	422	108,690	2,025,446
Yearly average,.....	203,456	6,431	3,039	47	12,077	225,049
Per cent of each class,....	90.41	2.85	1.35	0.02	5.37	100
Av. from '35 to '38, 4 yrs.,	226,258	6,126	1,697	32	10,407	244,520
Av. from '39 to '43, 5 yrs.,	185,214	6,675	4,112	59	13,413	209,473

The annual average of the total tons arrived at the Hudson river, from the Champlain canal, is as follows:—

From 1835 to 1838, 4 years,.....	244,520
" 1839 to 1843, 5 "	209,473
Ann. av. diminution in the last 5 years, tons,	35,047

The average increase or decrease of each class of articles, for the same period, which results in the above total decrease, is as follows:—

Class of Articles.	Decrease. *Tons.*	Increase. *Tons.*
Products of the forest,.....	41,044	....
Agriculture,.....	....	549
Manufactures,.....	....	2,415
Merchandise,.....	....	27
Other articles,.....	....	3,006
	41,044	5,997
		41,044
Diminution,.....		35,047

The total tons of each class of articles which came to the Hudson river, from the Erie and Champlain canals, from 1835 to 1843, was as follows:—

TOTAL TONS OF EACH CLASS OF ARTICLES.

Year.	Products of the forest. *Tons.*	Agriculture. *Tons.*	Manufactures. *Tons.*	Mdze. *Tons.*	Other articles. *Tons.*	Total. *Tons.*
1835,.....	540,202	170,954	8,848	2,085	31,102	753,191
1836,.....	473,668	173,000	12,906	1,176	35,597	696,347
1837,.....	385,017	151,469	10,124	394	64,777	611,781
1838,.....	400,877	182,142	8,487	298	48,677	640,481
1839,.....	377,720	163,785	8,565	499	51,559	602,128
1840,.....	321,709	302,356	8,665	104	36,178	669,012
1841,.....	449,095	270,240	17,891	155	36,953	774,334

TOTAL TONS OF EACH CLASS OF ARTICLES—Continued.

Year.	Products of the forest. *Tons.*	Agriculture. *Tons.*	Manufactures. *Tons.*	Mdze. *Tons.*	Other articles. *Tons.*	Total. *Tons.*
1842,.....	321,480	293,177	16,015	185	35,769	666,626
1843,.....	416,173	346,140	29,493	201	44,854	836,861
Total for 9 years,.....	3,685,941	2,053,263	120,994	5,097	385,466	6,250,761
Yearly average,.....	409,549	228,140	13,444	566	42,829	694,529
Per cent of each class,...	58.97	32.85	1.94	.08	6.16	100
Av. from '35 to '38, 4 yrs.,	449,941	169,391	10,091	988	45,038	675,449
Av. from '39 to '43, 5 yrs.,	377,235	275,139	16,126	229	41,062	709,792

The annual average of the total tons arrived at the Hudson river, is as follows:—

From 1839 to 1843, 5 years,.....	709,792
" 1835 to 1838, 4 "	675,450
Increase, tons,.....	34,342

The average increase or decrease of each class of articles, for the same period, which results in the above total increase, is as follows:—

Class of Articles.	Decrease. *Tons.*	Increase. *Tons.*
Products of the forest,.....	72,706	....
Agriculture,.....	....	105,748
Manufactures,.....	....	6,035
Merchandise,.....	759	....
Other articles,.....	3,976	....
	77,441	111,783
		77,441
Increase, tons,.....		34,342

The per cent of each class of property which came from each canal, in the last ten years, is as follows, viz:—

	Champlain.	Erie.	Both.
Products of the forest,.....	90.41	43.89	58.97
" agriculture,.....	2.85	47.23	32.85
Manufactures,.....	1.35	2.22	1.94
Merchandise,.....	.02	.11	.08
Other articles,.....	5.37	6.55	6.16
Total,.....	100.	100.	100.

A reference to the foregoing statements shows that the forest diminishes, on the average, on both canals; though, on the Erie canal, the tonnage of the forest, delivered at tide-water, does not diminish as fast as the tonnage of agriculture from western states increases.

The striking disproportion between the tonnage of the forest and of agriculture, arriving at tide-water, on the Erie canal and on the Champlain canal, will be noticed. On the Champlain canal, over 90 per cent is from the forest, and less than 3 per cent from agriculture. A reference *to the foregoing* statement will show that, while the "forest," on that

canal, has fallen off more than 40,000 tons per annum, in the last five years, agriculture has increased less than 600 tons per annum, in the same time.

In no one year, during the last nine years, has the "agriculture" from the Champlain canal been equal to 9,000 tons; while the average, for the whole time, is 6,431 tons. The annual average of the forest, for the same time, has been 203,456 tons; and the total average of all articles has been 225,049 tons.

The Champlain canal is 66 miles long, and connects with Lake Champlain, a natural navigation of 150 miles; making a communication of 216 miles in length. This communication is through a grazing, rather than a grain country, fast parting with its forests contiguous to the navigable waters; and, as is before seen, sending to market a surplus, annually, of only about 6,500 tons of agriculture. The agricultural surplus will not materially, if at all, increase; for the largest surplus of agriculture always comes from a comparatively new country, and decreases with the increase of population. The tonnage of the forest will not, of course, increase; for it is plain that in every locality the supply is in an inverse ratio to the demand. Population multiplies, but trees cut down do not soon renew themselves.

The result of the last five years is seen. A similar average decrease of the tonnage of the forest on that canal, for six years to come, would completely annihilate it. Though this is not to be expected, the tonnage will doubtless continue to diminish, unless, after the payment of the canal debt, a reduction is made in the rates of toll, sufficient to induce the transportation of wood, lumber, and other heavy products, from a greater distance than is warranted by the present rates of transportation.

That portion of the Erie canal over which the largest volume of tonnage passes, and which, of course, requires the largest capacity, is between Utica and the Hudson river. It is over this portion of the canal that most of the tonnage moves which reaches tide-water.

The course of the lockages between Utica and Albany is furnished by the lockages at Alexander's lock, the first lock west of Schenectady, and which passes more boats than any other lock on the Erie canal. The lockages in the last nine years have been as follows:—

1835,	25,798	1840,	26,987
1836,	25,516	1841,	30,320
1837,	21,055	1842,	22,869
1838,	25,962	1843,	23,184
1839,	24,231		

The average of the up tonnage, for the preceding nine years, is, to the down tonnage, about as 1 to 5. As the up tonnage is merchandise, mainly, and the down tonnage is principally the product of the forest and of agriculture, it is not probable that the former will ever equal the latter.

That portion of the Erie canal over which the largest number of boats pass, is also between Utica and Albany. The number of boats which arrived at and departed from Albany and West Troy, during the last eleven years, was as follows:—

In 1833,	31,460	In 1839,	31,882
1834,	32,438	1840,	30,456
1835,	36,690	1841,	33,782
1836,	34,190	1842,	32,840
1837,	31,082	1843,	32,826
1838,	32,120		

Owing to the internal demand of this state for bread-stuffs, consequent upon the increase of population, it is not probable that the delivery, at tide-water, of the surplus of wheat and flour, the growth of this state, will much, if any, exceed that of past years. The increased delivery at tide-water, for the last eight years, has been, and that of future years probably will be, wholly of the growth of western states. And this increased delivery, it should be borne in mind, is not to be proportioned to the capacity of those states to produce, but to the demand for consumption at tide-water, on the Hudson river. This lengthened transportation of the products of agriculture, which pay nearly half the tolls, will thus increase the revenue much beyond the relative increase of the tons arriving at tide-water.

That the increase of delivery of flour and wheat, at tide-water, is the product of western states, is evidenced by the following statement :—

TONS OF FLOUR AND WHEAT.

	First Cleared.			
Year.	Product of this state.	Product of W. states.	Total tons first cl'd.	Tons arriving at tide-water.
1836,.....	134,507	25,241	159,748	124,982
1837,.....	124,769	31,933	156,702	116,491
1838,.....	128,290	60,925	189,515	133,080
1839,.....	145,090	64,196	209,286	124,683
1840,.....	220,840	99,507	320,347	244,862
1841,.....	178,724	120,258	298,982	201,360
1842,.....	163,317	124,267	287,584	198,231
1843,.....	187,160	157,453	344,703	248,780

Thus it appears, comparing 1836 with 1843, that while the increased delivery, at tide-water, of flour and wheat, is about 123,000 tons, the increase from western states is about 132,000 tons. It will be seen that the products of this state, in 1840, exceed those of either of the three subsequent years, while the products of western states steadily increase.

In the official report from which we have derived the information embraced in the present article, the inquiry is instituted, "Is the increase of tolls on the canals, in the products of this state, or in the products of the western states?" To answer this question, sundry tables and statements are presented, from which we derive the following particulars. The tolls collected at Albany and West Troy, in each of the last ten years, on merchandise going from tide-water, and at Buffalo and Black Rock, on the products of western states going towards tide-water, is as follows :—

Year.	Albany.	West Troy.	Total.	Buffalo.	Black-Rock.	Total.
1834,	$245,811	$133,129	$378,940	$91,204	.....	$91,204
1835,	357,602	153,446	511,048	106,213	.....	106,213
1836,	389,327	160,248	549,575	158,075	.....	158,075
1837,	279,623	129,128	408,751	128,570	.....	128,570
1838,	357,187	182,516	539,703	202,891	.....	202,891
1839,	343,007	206,580	549,587	214,183	$40,778	254,961
1840,	295,563	186,947	482,510	321,417	54,164	375,581
1841,	344,037	265,890	609,927	348,688	83,935	432,623
1842,	249,353	204,215	453,568	374,780	35,436	410,216
1843,	274,496	291,648	566,144	505,319	38,889	544,208

The following table is given as the result of the canal commissioners statement. The tolls of the Erie canal, for the last ten years, have been paid as follows :—

Year.	*On Agricultural and other Products.* From other states.	From this state.	Total.	On Merchandise.	Tot. tolls on Erie canal.
1834,.....	$105,204	$686,824	$802,028	$378,940	$1,180,968
1835,.....	122,513	743,112	865,625	511,048	1,376,673
1836,.....	182,328	708,617	890,945	549,595	1,440,540
1837,.....	148,294	587,125	735,419	408,751	1,144,170
1838,.....	234,020	640,451	874,471	539,703	1,414,174
1839,.....	294,088	583,358	877,446	549,586	1,427,032
1840,.....	433,222	681,602	1,114,824	482,510	1,597,334
1841,.....	499,051	704,674	1,203,725	609,926	1,813,651
1842,.....	496,666	618,713	1,115,389	453,568	1,568,947
1843,.....	604,319	709,853	1,314,172	566,143	1,880,315
Totals for 10 yrs.,.	$3,119,705	$6,674,329	$9,794,044	$5,049,770	$14,843,804
" 1st 5 years,	$792,359	$3,376,129	$4,168,488	$2,388,037	$6,556,525
" 2d 5 years,.	$2,327,346	$3,298,200	$5,625,556	$2,661,733	$8,287,279

From the above, it appears that the increase in the last five years is..... $1,730,754

That the increase on merchandise is.....	$273,696	
That the increase on products from western states is.....	1,534,987	
Showing a total increase of.....	$1,808,683	
And that there is a decrease on the products of this state of.....	77,929	
		$1,730,554

It will be understood that these are results of the Erie canal alone, distinct from any other canals. If they are a correct criterion for the future, the tolls of the Erie canal, on the products of this state, have reached their maximum; and an increase of tolls on that canal is to depend on an increase of products from the western states.

The increase at Oswego is known to be mostly, if not wholly, on products from western states.

The increase at Oswego is.....	$104,143
The increase on all the lateral canals, including Oswego, is	43,621
Thus showing a decrease of.....	$60,522

in the last five years, in the tolls of the lateral canals, on the "products of this state."

The results of the foregoing statements, for all the canals, is then as follows:—

Increase on the Erie canal,.....		$1,730,754
" all other canals,.....		43,621
		$1,774,375
Increase on products from western states, viz:—		
By way of Buffalo and Black-Rock,	$1,534,987	
" Oswego,.....	104,143	
	$1,639,130	

Decrease on products from this state, viz :—			
On the Erie canal,....	$77,929		
On all other canals,...	60,522		
		$138,451	
Leaving a balance of increase on agricultural products, from western states, of.		$1,500,679	
Increase on merchandise sent from tide-water,.....		273,696	
			$1,774,375

These results show one of two things—either that the agriculture of this state suffers from a competition with the cheap and fertile lands of the western states, which seek through the Erie canal a market for their surplus productions; or that, as a country penetrated by canals becomes more densely populated, an internal demand grows up for productions which, at an earlier period, were sent to the sea-board. Both propositions may be, and, to a certain extent, probably are, true. From the facilities of transportation, the states around the lakes, with lands to be procured at from two to ten dollars per acre, must continue to compete with the lands of New York, until they shall approximate nearly to an equality in value. That this is to be done rather by the depreciation of the value of the lands in this state, than by the increase of the value of the land in those states, follows from the almost incalculable quantity of fertile lands in those states, in easy and cheap communication with the lakes; and which, so far, have sought a market through the Erie canal.

NUMBER OF CANAL-BOATS.

It has always been a matter of uncertainty how many canal-boats were in existence at any one period. The register of boats kept in this department shows some 5,000 boats. A conviction that this was much beyond the actual number of boats, led to the steps to procure an accurate list.

The number, character, and tonnage of the boats, as shown by the table, are as follows. A column of value has been given, as obtained from an intelligent forwarder :—

	No.	Av. tonnage.	Tot. tonnage.	Value.
Packets,.....	40	34	1,370	$40,000
Line boats,.....	389	54	21,082	389,000
Lake "	379	63	23,865	379,000
Bull-head boats,.....	118	62	7,350	118,000
Scow boats, decked,.....	327	56	18,425	600,000
" not decked,.....	873	52	45,361	
Total,.....	2,126	55	117,453	$1,526,000

It will be noticed that scow-boats, covered and not covered, are a majority, both in number and tonnage, of all the boats on the canals. Among the reasons for this, is the falling off of the passenger business on the Erie canal, in consequence of the continuous line of railroad from Albany to Buffalo. This has changed the construction of boats from the "line-boat" form, which has accommodations for passengers, to the "scow," the "lake," and the "bull-head" form, which carry only freight. From the fact that no similar return of the boats on the canals has ever before been *made, showing* their number, character, and tonnage, there is no means

of ascertaining the number and tonnage of any particular class of boats, at any one period; but the commissioners think it cannot be far from the truth to say that, ten years ago, the proportion of line-boats, with accommodations for passengers, to all other boats, was about one-half. Now, they are less than one-fifth. This change of the character from a boat built for speed, with half its room devoted to the accommodation of passengers, and half to freight, to a boat built wholly for freight, has had the effect correspondingly to lessen the number of boats necessary to carry the same number of tons.

Art. IV.—THE COPPER MINES OF CUBA.

We were not aware of the commercial importance of the copper mines of Cuba, until our attention was called to the subject, by the letter of George Ditson, Esq., the United States consul at Neuvitas, which we give below. We have since conversed with several gentlemen, familiar with mining in Cuba and our own country, from whom we have gathered many valuable facts; and to George Bacon, Esq., the secretary of the "Copper Company," of New York, we are indebted mainly for the information embraced in the remarks with which we now introduce Mr. Ditson's letter.*

The quantity of copper ore,† shipped from Cuba to England, during the year, from 1st July, 1842, to 30th June, 1843, was 28,886 tons of 21 cwt., and the amount for which the ore sold at Swansea, Wales, previously to smelting, was £408,865 or $1,978,896; from Valparaiso, Chili and Copiapo, 12,804 tons, which sold for £295,084 or $1,428,206, and making a total of $3,407,102, imported into Great Britain from these two sources. The whole amount of copper ore, sold in England and Wales during the same period, of one year, was $7,790,749; the ore imported from Cuba and the west coast of South America, is, therefore, nearly one-half the amount smelted, or nearly equal in value to the product of the mines of Cornwall and Ireland.

The vast product of the mines of Great Britain, and the extent of her smelting works, together with the fact that English merchants appreciate the value of copper ore and mines, and are working the mines of Cuba and Chili, give to her the entire control of the copper of the world; the business of smelting, being also in the hands of wealthy capitalists, its value remains steady under all circumstances. The quantity smelted by one house, in the same period, was £478,293 8*s.* 5*d.* or $2,314,940.

By reference to the sales of ore, since June 30th, 1843, we find the foreign supply continues steady, and Mr. Bacon entertains no doubt will be found to have increased when the report for the last year is received.

The whole of this vast amount of copper, which Cuba produces, and a share of that from South America, might readily be transferred to the port of New York. The English companies in Cuba, have been anxiously inquiring for a position nearer to their mines, where they might

* The statistics are derived from an authentic source—the London Miners' Journal.

† Any of our readers disposed to investigate the subject with a view to prosecute an enterprise that promises to prove so lucrative, by the establishment of smelting works in New York or elsewhere, are referred to Mr. Bacon.

smelt their ores and avoid the duty in England of £4 10*s.* and £6 per ton of copper. No position offers advantages equal to New York; and the business of smelting, if established here, would command the whole ore of the island, English, as well as Spanish and American, beside offering a new branch of trade to South America, from whence our ships now bring large quantities of copper, but no ore, there being no market here for want of a smelting establishment.

Not the least difficulty exists, except the want of information in relation to the existence of so large a business passing by us, and the courage to invest a few thousand dollars in demonstrating the best method of smelting. The English method is not the best, and would long since have been abandoned, but that the whole is in the hands of five or six houses, who have a vast amount of capital already invested in their works, are subject to no competition, and are able to realize large profits by their present method.

The mines of Mr. Ditson are situated about twenty-five miles from the port of Neuvitas, near the line of the Neuvitas and Principe railroad, now constructing. Their operations can hardly be said to have commenced—everything is new; the information necessary to the prosecution of mining, to be acquired, shafts to be sunk, machinery to be erected, and the late drought in the island has retarded their operations; yet the company have shipped to England, since their operations commenced, (two or three years since,) about 1,000 tons of ore, yielding from 12 to 20 per cent, and which must have furnished ample means for the prosecution of their business; and having now erected their steam engine and other machinery, they will be able to increase their product to 100 or 200 tons per month, all of which must go to England, unless his wish, that "American furnaces require them," is realized.

The copper company of New York, have recently purchased three mines in the neighborhood of Mr. Ditson, and are preparing to prosecute the same business. Want of capital is retarding their operations, and, like most *new* projects, it meets with but little encouragement from individuals of capital and influence; should it, however, outlive its difficulties, and, by the establishment of smelting works, a leading object of the company, open a new branch of commerce to New York, and bring only one quarter of the copper ore of Cuba to our market, of the value of half a million of dollars, their efforts, which are now but little known and less appreciated, will be more properly estimated.

That our readers may be able to form some opinion of the profit of mining, and the value of copper mines in Cuba, we may state, on the authority of Mr. Bacon, that the Royal Santiago company, at St. Jago de Cuba, realized a net profit of £32,000 from their business, for twelve months of 1843 and 1844, equal to about 50 per cent per annum, upon the capital invested; and that the Cuba company paid for their mines £480,000, upwards of $2,000,000.

A Spanish company are also working mines in the neighborhood of Mr. Ditson, which is probably one of the richest copper districts in the world, and quite unoccupied. They have shipped to England some hundred tons of ore, through New York; and the mines at Cienfurgos, worked by an American company, also send their ores to England, through the port of New York, several cargoes of which have been forwarded within the last year.

Consulate of the United States of America.

NEUVITAS, CUBA, June 19th, 1844.

DEAR SIR:—Aware that you, as well as a great portion of your readers, are deeply interested in all that concerns the commerce of the United States, allow me to present my opinions, along with the many widely disseminated truths of your invaluable Magazine, upon a very important branch of industry which has, as yet, unfortunately, received little or no attention in our country—I mean, the smelting of copper ores, which is so productive of revenue to Great Britain.

Are you aware that there are several American companies in the island of Cuba, who ship the ores of their copper mines to England, under enormous expenses of duty, freight, &c., for want of purchasers in the United States? Such is the fact. Now, if these ores could be smelted in the states, even at double the sum it costs in Swansea, (which is £2 10*s.* per ton, and called return charge,) hundreds and thousands of tons, not only from Cuba, but from South America, would be sent direct to the United States in American vessels, and thus open almost a new channel of commercial advantage and give to our own shipping that profit of freight they should have, and might have had, years ago, with those various other benefits which have so long been ceded, without a struggle and almost without a thought, to European energy and enterprise.

The reason why we could afford to pay twice as much for smelting our ores in America, as it costs in England, is, because the other expenses connected with the introduction and sale of it, at the latter place, so far exceed what it could possibly cost in the former. The expenses on a cargo of mineral, from the time it leaves New York till it is sold in Liverpool or Swansea, amount to nearly *one-fifth* of its entire value; and if it is shipped direct from Cuba to the latter place, they will exceed even that, as freight is usually from £2 10*s.* to £3 per ton. To prove to you the truth of what I have here stated, I beg to present a copy of account sales rendered to me by my agents in England: (*See table on next page.*)

The freight of mineral from this place to New York, for instance, is from $5 to $7 per ton. There is no duty on copper ores introduced into the United States. In sending ores to the states, for smelting, the wastage would be little, compared with what it is by our present and cheapest mode of getting it to Swansea.

Several copper mines have recently been opened in this district, and some of them bid fair to be very productive. At the one in which I am interested, I have put up a high pressure engine—the first steam machinery ever introduced into this province. Mineral appears to be very abundant here, and I shall be delighted to know, when I am again loading American vessels with ores, that American furnaces require them.

This subject of smelting, at which I have hinted in the above very hasty and imperfect sketch, I shall endeavor to present to our government in a more extended form for its consideration, in order that it may have an eye to the minutest interests of the commerce of the United States, as well as the welfare of its subjects here and in other foreign places.

I have the honor to remain, dear sir,

Your very obedient servant,

GEORGE DITSON, VICE-CONSUL.

FREEMAN HUNT, ESQ.

Account Sales of Copper Ore received from New York per Joseph Cunard, Captain Harrison, and sold here by order, on account and risk of John Simmons & Son, Boston—Sold at three months credit.

1844.		T.	C.	Q.	Lbs.	
March 21. Pile No. 1, weighing		60	10	3	0	
Moisture, 250½-7,000	43 cwt. 1 qr. 8 lb.					
Allowance, 24½ lb. per 21 cwt.,	12 " 2 " 12 "	2	15	3	20	
	20 cwt.	57	14	3	8	
Or, T. C. Q. Lbs. 54 20 3 0 of 21 cwt. product, 18½, st'd 90½. Price, £14 8s. 6d.						£793 4 1
		T.	C.	Q.	Lbs.	
Pile No. 2, weighed		28	8	3	0	
Moisture, 397½-7,000	32 cwt. 1 qr. 5 lb.					
Allowance, 24½ lb. per 21 cwt.,	5 " 3 " 19 "					
		1	18	0	24	
	20 cwt.	26	10	2	4	
Or, T. C. Q. Lbs. 25 5 2 0—21 cwt. product, 19½, st'd 90. Price, £14 14s. 0d.						371 7 0
						£1,164 11 1

Charges.

Insurance, £1,150 c. 25, and 3 per cent,	£16	3	6
Freight, 15, and 5 per cent per ton, 89 tons, 7 cwt., 3 qr., 10 lb.,	70	7	10
Bond, dock, town dues, and entry,	5	4	6
Duty, 16 tons, 10 cwt., 1 qr., 12 lb., £4 10, and 5 per cent premium,	78	0	10
Rec. weighing, lightering due, baskets, &c.,	10	5	2
Yard rent, crushing and delivering 84 tons,	33	12	0
Sampling ex., and assaying,	2	5	0
Int. on charges, 3 months,	2	13	10
Bank com., ¼ per cent, on £1,164 11s. 1d.,	2	18	2
Com., brokage, &c., 4 per cent,	46	11	7
			268 2 5
E. E. Due 24th June, 1844,			£896 8 8

Art. V.—MARITIME LAW.

NUMBER V.

BOTTOMRY BONDS.

During the early periods of history, the contract of bottomry was resorted to for the purpose of raising money to carry on commerce with foreign countries, as well as for the purpose of domestic trade. Hypothecations were much more frequent in the commercial affairs of the world, than at the present day. Two other subjects are intimately connected with that of bottomry loans, which are insurance and bills of exchange, and appear to have had a very great influence upon this species of contracts. Before the introduction of bills of exchange into the commercial *world, mankind* carried on trade by gold and silver coin or bullion, or by *the operations of* barter and exchange of commodities.

The danger attending the transportation of the precious metals, from

the rapacity of enemies, pirates and false friends, the exceedingly great temptations to crews to commit mutiny and plunder their vessels, held out by this method of doing business, necessarily gave the merchant a claim to demand a very high rate of premium for the risk he run when he loaned his money in trade. In countries which have no other method of carrying on their commerce, than by the medium of barter or the precious metals, the contract of bottomry is of the greatest utility. Hence, we find, that, in the earlier days of commercial history, this contract was resorted to more frequently than in modern times.

Bills of exchange, render such contracts and loans unnecessary in most cases where they would be demanded under the old system of doing business, by the precious metals, and barter and exchange of commodities. Money is seldom borrowed, at the present day, by way of bottomry loans, except by masters of vessels, who put into ports in foreign countries to repair or to purchase supplies, pay off the crew, or to liquidate the incidental expenses of the voyage; and even when money is borrowed for these objects, the bottomry contract or hypothecation will be invalid, by the modern commercial law of all countries, could the master have procured the money by drawing bills of exchange on his owners or otherwise have obtained it on their credit.*

Before commerce had the benefit of bills of exchange to carry on its transactions, the ocean was covered with pirates and the land with robbers; all commercial adventures were so hazardous, that little encouragement could be held out to the merchant to engage in navigation or trade. Whole nations in the Baltic and the Mediterranean seas, as well as in the Atlantic ocean, embarked in the business of piracy as an honorable employment.† And we see the remnants of this system, in our day, among the piratical nations along the northern shores of Africa and through the Mahometan countries of the east. Indeed, Spain has not been able to establish a perfect system of police, either in the mother country or in her late colonial possessions in America, for want of a good system of commercial exchanges. We have witnessed armed galleons, of fifty guns, employed to transport the gold and silver, from America to Europe, which this nation derived from her mines in the colonies. When bills of exchange became the principal medium of commerce, piracies and robberies, in a great degree, ceased, because the robber could not use his ill-gotten gains without detection. The incentive to commit these crimes, being removed, the ocean was cleared of piracies and the land of pillage.

"Lead us not into temptation," says the shortest and the best prayer ever repeated by human lips; and bills of exchange have destroyed the greatest temptations that ever beset mankind to commit piracy and robbery. So essential is some check to the temptation to plunder, that the China merchants, who use the precious metals for their trade, are said to put a private mark on their money by a stamp when they pass it from their hands.

Bills of exchange were not generally used by the European nations, before the 13th and 14th centuries of the Christian era; and they appear to have been adopted by the Jews, who were banished from the western nations of Europe into Lombardy and Lithuania, in the 13th century, to

* *2d Washington's Circuit* Rep's., p. 226. The Active.
† *See Addy's Com. Hist. of Europe*, p. 9.

draw their money from the countries which exiled them. The Roman people were not generally acquainted with the use of commercial bills of exchange, and hence, it was the practice with the creditor, who lent money on bottomry and respondentia to a foreign merchant, in the age of Justinian, to send his slave to receive the loan, with maritime interest, on the arrival of the vessel at the foreign port.*

The Jews carried on commerce with their brethren in India, during the earlier periods of the middle ages, and then they found that bills of exchange had been known from the highest antiquity. We find that, so long as the nations of the eastern world had the benefit of bills of exchange for their trade, in exclusion of the western nations, who alone used gold and silver, the India people were enabled to concentrate trade and wealth within their jurisdiction; but, from the time that bills of exchange became in general use in Europe, the India people lost their ascendency in the commercial world, and their wealth and trade were transferred to the shores of the Atlantic ocean.

The first British statute, in regard to bills of exchange, was passed in the reign of Richard II., in the year 1381, and after the Jews had been banished from the western nations of Europe. The city of Barcelona, in Spain, first regulated the acceptance of bills of exchange, by an ordinance, in 1394; and the earliest edict of France, on this subject, was made by Louis XI., in 1462. The eminent lawyer and civilian, Baldus, who was born in Italy, in the year 1324, and died in the year 1420, is the first legal writer who makes mention of bills of exchange in that century.

The renowned Hanseatic League in Europe, was formed in 1165, for mutual protection against piracies and robberies by sea and land. The association began with the cities of Lubeck, Brunswick, Dantzic and Cologne, and in 1169, ten other cities on the Baltic and German shores, joined in the confederacy. This confederacy increased its influence and territories, so that no less than seventy-four of the most considerable towns and cities in Europe, along the shores of the Atlantic ocean and Mediterranean sea, united in it, including London, Cadiz and Bilbao. So necessary was this union to protect commerce, that it became dissolved only when the cause that produced the union had ceased to exist, in the 16th and 17th centuries. Bills of exchange had now become the common medium of commerce in Europe, and laws had been adopted by most nations, to regulate their use. The 13th century forms a remarkable epoch in the annals of the commercial world. The mariners compass, the use of bills of exchange and marine insurance, had been transplanted, during this period, from China and the eastern nations, into Europe, and from that date commences the growth of manufactures, trade, commerce and navigation; since which time, the northern Atlantic nations have emerged from barbarism and exceeded all others in wealth, power and civilization, and have extended their commercial intercourse throughout the world.

The master's authority to raise money on bottomry, is governed by the necessities of each particular case, and is different in different ages and countries. His powers and duties increase, with the emergencies of his situation and the distressing circumstances which surround him. In ordinary cases, he will not be permitted to hypothecate the cargo or the ves-

* 3 Kent, p. 71.

sel, to raise money to prosecute the voyage, yet he may do both to a certain extent. When he cannot raise sufficient funds by hypothecating the vessel, he may, if the necessities of the case require it, sell a portion of the cargo or hypothecate the whole, and he will be justified in so doing by the maritime law.*

While gold and silver remained the only medium of exchange, the master was necessarily clothed with more extended powers, on foreign voyages, in regard to trade and the employment of his vessel, than in modern times, because bills of exchange have given him greater facilities to raise money on the credit of the owners.

By the ancient Spanish law, no more than *three-quarter parts* of its value may, for any motive, be taken at bottomry on the body and keel of the ship, appraising it by skilful men, named by the borrower and lender, on penalty, that, on acting to the contrary, and it being opposed by either of the two, it shall not be admitted into judgment.† The ancient ordinances of Rotterdam, provided that money taken on bottomry, on the sale of goods, shall not amount to above *one-eighth part* of the value of the ship and cargo, unless in cases of the utmost necessity. All masters acting to the contrary, should be liable to make good the damage to the owners and merchants, or even to be arbitrarily convicted or punished according to the circumstances of each case.

By the ordinance of Antwerp, no person formerly could take or ask any money upon the bottom of the ship, for himself or another, directly or indirectly, unless the master, while in a foreign country, for the necessities of the voyage occasioned by misfortune at sea, enemies or other unavoidable accidents, should be unable to dispose of any goods in a regular way, and then, no more than *one-quarter part* of the value of the bottom, hull and tackle of the vessel, could be hypothecated; but when necessity obliges the master to take a larger sum than a *quarter part* of the value of the ship, he might take a larger sum provided he made the necessity appear. The master, by this ordinance, could not alien, sell or dispose of the cargo, or the vessel or any part of it, so long as he could find bills of exchange upon the bottom of the vessel; and when he could not find these, he might not sell more of the merchandise than a *quarter part* of the value of the vessel, unless in the greatest emergency, on penalty, if the master should act to the contrary, he should make good all damages and be arbitrarily punished besides.

The rule of law, in the above case, is that, in absence of the prohibitions of the ordinances, the master possessed, by the ancient maritime law, full power to hypothecate both vessel and cargo at his discretion, and that the owners of the vessel would be bound by his acts. Such was the civil law in the days of the Greeks and Romans. Under their codes, a master of a vessel was the general agent of the owners, for the voyage, and the management of the vessel. The owner was bound for his acts, in the same manner and to the same extent, as he who appointed an agent, factor or deputy.

By the modern civil law, the agent could hypothecate his principal's property, in case of necessity, without an express authority to do so, but by the common law of England, he could not do it unless his authority or

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* *See Robinson's* Rep's., p. 272.
† *See Ordinances of* Bilboa, chap. 23, § 9.

letter of attorney had provided for the exigency; yet the courts of common law, as well as the courts of admiralty, adopted the rule of the civil law while navigation and trade upon the ocean were yet in their infancy.

This rule was, that the master had power, by virtue of his command, to hypothecate the ship and tackle, in case of necessity, and money could be raised in no other way for the purposes of the voyage.

The rule has been transplanted into America, and courts of law and admiralty are familiar with the application of it, in cases of bottomry contracts, at the present day.*

Since the intercourse of mankind has become so extended, and the facilities so great, to communicate with distant parts of the globe, the judicial tribunals, in England and America, have decided that, in order to make an hypothecation by the master of a ship on its cargo, a valid contract is essential.

First. That it should be necessary for the safety of the ship, or apparently so, and to enable her to proceed on her voyage, and not for a debt of the master on his private account, or for any debt or demand previously incurred, or incurred at the same period of time, which do not form a lien upon the vessel by the laws of the country where the vessel is found. But where a vessel is under arrest by legal process, in a foreign country, or captured or to be ransomed, the master may execute a valid bottomry bond to release the vessel to enable her to pursue her voyage or to return home in safety.

Second. The hypothecation must be made in a strange port, where the master cannot communicate with the owners, through distance, civil commotions or warlike operations, or sickness; or in a foreign state, and not in a home port where the owners reside; and the necessity and the reasonableness of the same, must be made to appear by other evidence than what the bond shows on its face, on the part of the lender, when he seeks to enforce his contract in a court of justice.

Third. It must be where none of the owners are present, and when the agents of the vessel are unwilling or unable to advance the necessary means. But when the master has no goods, or not a sufficiency at his command, or money, either belonging to himself or owners, for this purpose to be applied, he may pledge the goods and freight, as well as the ship, or he may sell a part of the cargo to repair the ship.

Fourth. It is essential that no other means of procuring funds, at the place required, either by borrowing or drawing bills of exchange on his owners, should exist; and when funds can be obtained, on the personal credit of the owners, the power to hypothecate does not exist in the captain.

Fifth. The sum loaned, must be put at the risk of the perils of the sea, and the money must be advanced on the faith and credit of the property hypothecated, and at the sole risk of its loss or safety.† The modern rule of law, is, that the necessities of the vessel must be apparent, but not absolute; the master must act in good faith, and do what a prudent and skilful owner would do, or be justified in doing, for his co-part owners, were they not present. Mr. Justice Story, in the case of the ship Fortitude,‡ has entered into a profound and learned discussion of the subject,

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* *Hobart's Rep's.*, p. 12, Bridgman's case. † 2 Peter's Adm. Decisions, p. 295.
‡ *3 Summer's Rep's.*, p. 229.

under what circumstances and on what occasions, a master will be justified in putting the vessel under an hypothecation, while on her voyage, by a bottomry loan. He arrives at the conclusion, that a master of a ship has authority, in a foreign port, to procure all supplies and repairs necessary for the safety of the ship, and the due performance of the voyage; that this authority is not confined to such supplies as are absolutely necessary or indispensable, but includes all such as are reasonably fit and proper for the ship and the voyage; that the master may do what a prudent and reasonable owner would do, under the like circumstances; that a master, acting with reasonable diligence, discretion and skill, upon the advice of competent shipwrights, surveyors and inspectors of vessels, will be protected, in obtaining repairs of his vessel in foreign ports, though, in the judgment of other skilful persons, a more judicious course might have been adopted; but the master must not be guilty of fraud or collusion, with the lender on bottomry, to obtain the repairs to be done, but they must *bona fide* be apparently necessary.

On the other hand, the lender must act in entire good faith, and lend his money on the credit of the ship alone, and at the risk of the voyage, to enable him to obtain a valid hypothecation of the vessel from the master, while in a foreign port. He is not, however, bound to see to the application of the money, to the repairs of the vessel and the purposes of the voyage; and if the master obtains the money and misapplies it, the lender will be protected in law, but the lender cannot wilfully co-operate in an unnecessary expenditure; yet, if a case of apparent necessity exists, for advances, the law will give him the benefit of the hypothecation. A regular survey, by competent and skilful persons, and repairs made, in pursuance of the recommendation, is *prima facia* evidence of the propriety of making the repairs, and will justify both master and lender on bottomry, though, in point of fact, no real or absolute necessity should exist.

By the maritime law, material men, and shipwrights, and those who supply and repair ships and vessels, have a lien for repairs made on a ship in a foreign port. Whenever these repairs are apparently reasonable and proper, although not absolutely necessary, all that is required on their part, is good faith and a just ground for action.

By the marine law, the master of a vessel is held to be the agent of the owners, and it is consistent with reason and natural justice, that the owners should be responsible for the skill and honesty of the agent, whom they employ in the management of their business. They select the master, and hold him out to the world as a fit person to be trusted, and, in so doing, to a certain extent, they may be said to contract with the person with whom he deals, from the existence of these qualities in his agent. Unless the principal was held responsible for the acts of the agent, when acting within the scope of his authority, mankind would have no security or protection in the ordinary transaction of affairs.

The principal would be deriving a benefit from the acts of his agent, while the persons who may be dealing with the agent, if injured by his misconduct, would have no remedy but by an action against the agent himself, who might be wholly irresponsible. Hence, where the master of a vessel, while in a foreign port, having borrowed money on a proper occasion, for the purposes *of the voyage*, and hypothecated the vessel to the *lender, yet should he afterwards* misapply the money to other purposes *and squander it, the lender would* still have a lien on the vessel for his

money and maritime interest agreed on.* So, when the master of a vessel, while on a voyage, acts contrary to the secret instructions of his owners; yet they and the vessel will be bound for his acts, if they are within the apparent scope of his employment, on the ground, that he is held out to the world as such agent when the owners send him abroad.†

It is, at the present day, a growing practice in transactions of bottomry, for the lender to require the two-fold remedy of a bill of exchange in addition to the bond. The bill of exchange, being drawn on the owners or third parties, and accepted and paid, discharges the bond.

The bond is looked upon as the original and primary security, and the bill as a collateral; and is given as an additional and a more negotiable security.‡

This security may be taken, and the bond be held as a valid transaction, if the bill is not paid at maturity; but the security of the bill is no greater or higher an obligation, than the original transaction, and is collateral to it; nor does the payment of the bill prevent the lender from receiving a maritime interest for the loan of his money which should be included in it.

Having considered the right of the master to hypothecate the vessel for a maritime loan, we will now inquire concerning the power of the owners to do so.

By the ancient civil law, the owners, as well as the master, can hypothecate for a maritime loan; and no modern commercial nation has denied the power of the owner, where it could be exercised by the master. In many cases, it may be exercised by the owner, where the master could not do it. Most of the writers on the subject of bottomry loans, mentions it as a contract of the owners, as well as that of the master. Mr. Justice Blackstone, in his commentaries, describes the contract as one of the owners, without mentioning the master at all; and Mr. Abbott, in his treatise on shipping, speaks of bottomry contracts made by the owner, as well as by the master, and without any distinction as to the jurisdiction of the admiralty court upon the subject-matter, whether the bond be made by the owner, in a home or foreign port, or by the master, provided the contract relates to marine navigation or foreign trade.

A bottomry bond is a contract for a loan of money on the bottom of the ship, at an extraordinary interest, upon a maritime risk, to be borne by the lender for a particular voyage or voyages, or for a definite period of time. The interest which the lender acquires in the property, is such, that, when the risk has once begun to run, the hypothecation will be upheld, when there is no laches on his part as against a *bona fide* purchaser of the vessel without notice during the continuance of the risk.§ But a bottomry bond vests no indefeasible interest in the ship on which it is founded, but gives only a privilege upon her, which must be enforced with due expedition. The claim or privilege is preferred to every other, for the voyage on which the bottomry bond is executed, except seamens wages and subsequent hypothecations, which are necessary for the preservation of the property.

When the vessel has arrived in port and the risk has ended, the holder of the bottomry bond should seek to enforce the collection of it, by ad-

* *1 Robinson's Rep's.*, p. 401. The Druid. † N. S. Story's Agency, p. 290.
‡ *1 Ad. Rep's.*, p. 421. The Adriance.
§ *2 Summer's Rep's.*, p. 157. Brig Draco.

miralty process, without delay; because an execution issued on a judgment against the owner of the vessel, when levied, will claim a preference, if the levy is made before the levy of the warrant of arrest from the admiralty court, provided the bond has become due at the time of the levy. The law favors the vigilant, and where there are laches, the bottomry lender will be in danger of losing his priority by neglect on his part.*

This brings us to consider in what manner, property hypothecated by a bottomry transaction, will be discharged from the hypothecation, by the acts of the borrower or his servants and agents. We will now refer to the history of insurance law. The contract of bottomry appears to have been the stock, upon which was engrafted the system of marine insurance of modern days. "Out of the old field, came the new corn," says Lord Coke, and such appears to have been the case with respect to marine insurance. The law of bottomry contracts and marine insurance, are the same, in most of their particulars. The risks to be run by the lender on bottomry, are the same as those by an underwriter, unless there is a stipulation to the contrary; and the law concerning the discharge of the lender and underwriter, the same. Those risks, by the acts of the borrower, and his agents and servants, the same in both cases. Whatever will discharge a policy of insurance, will discharge a bottomry bond; and, generally, whatever will discharge the underwriter from his obligation, will discharge the lender from his risks, and give him an immediate right of action to collect his money loaned, together with maritime interest.

A. N.

Art. VI.—MERCANTILE BIOGRAPHY.

JOHN JACOB ASTOR.†

There are few men whose biography would prove more instructive or more acceptable to the present age, than the life of John Jacob Astor. To trace his career from his birth at Waldorf, near Heidelberg, in July, 1763, to the end of the first quarter of the present century, when he may be said to have retired from the more active pursuits of commerce, through all the events which have contributed to swell the tide of his fortune, would require a pen of no ordinary power, and a mind versed, not only in all the ramifications of trade, but in the history of this eventful period. If we add that the character of the individual, his moral and intellectual qualities, his acuteness of perception and his energy of action, his perseverance against obstacles and his readiness to seize advantages, his systematic frugality and his undaunted enterprise, his wide-reaching foresight and his minute sagacity—that all these qualities should be delineated, illustrated and analyzed, to complete the picture, the reader will acknowledge that, while many would thirst for the perusal of such a memoir, few would be found competent to prepare it. We neither possess the materials, nor claim the ability to sketch the life and character of one, whose

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* 2 P. Condensed Rep's., p. 129. Blair *vs.* the Charles Carter.

† The present sketch, *with the exception* of a few slight alterations, was originally prepared *for the New York "Picture Gallery* of the Old and New World." It is from *the pen of a gentleman well acquainted with* the subject, and the statements may, therefore, *generally be relied upon for their* authenticity.—[Ed. Merchants' Magazine.]

name has passed into a proverb as current as that of Crœsus, who, for nearly forty years, has been characterized as, perhaps, the greatest merchant of this, if not of any age—the Napoleon of commerce.

The merchant's occupation is a constant study of causes and effects. But with increasing experience, he deals more and more in results, attaining his conclusions by processes which vary with individual peculiarities. Mr. Astor was early endowed with extraordinary clearness of judgment and comprehensiveness of views. Divesting every subject upon which his mind was brought to bear, of all irrelevant matter, he went straight to the *gist*, detecting instantly the weak points in an argument, and adducing the strong ones with equal force and simplicity. His was a mind which flew where other intellects walked, and often reached the remotest bearings of a question before they had established the point of departure. This celerity of combination, inexplicable as the computations of Zerah Colburn, early gave him an incalculable advantage over all his competitors.

To appreciate the results of such a man's life, and to derive from it a lesson of instruction, we should constantly bear in mind its point of departure. This is equally applicable to the lives of all distinguished self-made men. Let each of us represent to himself such a task before him, and inquire how he could achieve it. There are many virtues unnoticed by the multitude and unchronicled by biographers, which have been essential elements of their success. Let the lover of worldly ease and indulgence, imagine, for instance, early self-denial. It is easy in the prime of life to dispense with many enjoyments, which, when denied to the youth, become real privations. When, therefore, a man has raised himself greatly above his compeers as a general, a statesman, a jurist, or a merchant—and particularly the latter, in a money-loving land of social equality like ours—we mean, of course, a man who owes his position entirely to his own labor and ability, most people are wont to lose sight of his humble origin, his early struggles and those portions of his career, which, nevertheless, are the only standard by which its splendor or its elevation can be judged.

Hardly a day elapses, at this season of the year, without bringing to our shores hundreds of emigrants, tempted by our spacious and fertile territory, from the densely-peopled lands of the old world. This great wave of human translation flows principally from Germany and Switzerland, where the industry and sobriety of the lower classes renders them our most desirable foreign acquisition. The papers tell us that, during the twenty-four hours preceding noon of the 1st of June inst., more than 2,600 souls arrived here, a majority of them Germans and Swiss, who bring with them a little money, a few household and farming utensils, each family generally an old fowling-piece, and all high expectations—nay, hope rendered certainty, by the accounts of their success, transmitted home by their predecessors in this land of promise.

The reader who has surveyed the City Hotel, the Park Theatre, the Astor House and some of the numerous blocks of houses, of which Mr. Astor is now the owner, will find it hard to believe that, in the month of March, 1784, sixty years since, Mr. Astor was one of the band of humble emigrants who landed at Baltimore, having sailed from London, in November, and been detained by the ice three months in Chesapeake bay. This opposition of the elements to his debarkation, would have struck ter-

ror into the soul of a superstitious Roman. It had no effect upon one possessed of that self-reliance which is already half the battle of life, and without which it were better to abandon the conflict.

It is said that, in a storm off our coast, which threatened the destruction of the ship and crew, while the other passengers were lost in apprehension, and regardless of aught save self-preservation, Mr. Astor appeared upon deck, arrayed in his best clothes. This excited some surprise, and when asked his object in discarding the more appropriate garb he had worn during the voyage, he replied—"That if he escaped with his life it would be with his best clothes, and if he perished no matter what became of them." Luckily the storm passed over.

During his detention in the Chesapeake, he made the acquaintance of a countryman of his, a furrier by trade, who willingly initiated him into the mysteries of his craft, and counselled him to invest the proceeds of his merchandise—a portion of which consisted of musical instruments from a brother's manufactory in London—in furs. Mr. Astor was then twenty years of age, and having decided to become a furrier, brought to his new pursuit all the activity of youth, with those habits of diligent observation, which had developed themselves in his character.

This was at the close of the revolutionary war. Peace had been proclaimed with Great Britain, the year previous; but the British military outposts, within our territory, had not been relinquished, and the commercial intercourse with Canada was restricted. Mr. Astor has been heard to observe that, at the time, he prophecied that ten years would elapse before Oswego, Niagara, Detroit, Michilimackinac and other posts within our lines, would be relinquished; and said to himself, "then, when the frontiers are surrendered, I will make my fortune in the fur trade."

Both predictions were accomplished. The treaty with Great Britain, of 1794–5, removed the restrictions on our trade with her colonies, and surrendered the above outposts, and then Mr. Astor, having the trade with the Canadas and with our western country, both open to his enterprise, proceeded rapidly to realise the fortune, the foundation of which was laid in more than ten years of thrift and patient industry.

By the first year of the present century, he had amassed something like $250,000. Forty-four years have since elapsed. By the natural course of accumulation, this sum would have amounted, at the end of such a period, to nearly $6,000,000; but, in Mr. Astor's hands, it has increased to nearer four times that amount, for we should be moderate in estimating his actual wealth at $20,000,000. In 1800, the man of thirty-seven could look back with satisfaction upon the career of the boy of eighteen, who, under the shade of a linden-tree, near his native village, had resolved, on the eve of leaving his home for a foreign land, *to be honest and industrious, and never to gamble.*

In 1809, at the age of forty-five, a time of life when most successful merchants begin to think of withdrawing from the cares and fatigues of business, to enjoy the well-earned repose, and oft-times the luxuries within the reach of opulence, Mr. Astor was revolving in his mind new enterprises, comprehensive as the globe itself. He had already extended his fur business to points hitherto untrodden by the American fur trader. He now founded *the American Fur Company*, with a view to compete with the *powerful British associations*, which were in a fair way to monopolise the *traffic in peltries throughout* the northern and southwestern regions of our

continent. But although the outposts of the American Fur Company, reaching into new and remote sections of the Indian country, attracted the neighboring tribes, and secured the rich spoils of the beaver, the otter and the buffalo, Mr. Astor was dissatisfied with these profitable results. The vast tracts of untried territory, between his remotest stations and the Pacific, were stocked with precious furs, and would prove a richer treasure than the mines of Potosi, if a chain of trading posts could be established to the Rocky Mountains, and from their western base along the banks of the Columbia to its mouth in the Pacific.

Then arose, and expanded in his mind, the gigantic project by which his name will be handed down to posterity. It was to establish a colony at the mouth of the Oregon, to be connected with the United States, in due time, by a series of trading forts, and, meanwhile, to monopolise the fur trade, west of the Rocky Mountains, with the Indian tribes that then thronged the borders of the Columbia. This settlement, which seemed destined to become the commercial emporium of the North Pacific, was to be supplied with goods, provisions, ammunition, &c., by a vessel, annually despatched thither, from New York. The same vessel was to convey supplies to the Russian trading establishments, farther north, and receive from them furs in exchange. With these furs, and those amassed during the year, at the new factory, she was to proceed to Canton, then the most eligible market for the richest furs; and having there sold her cargo, to invest the proceeds in teas, silks, and nankeens, and return home. It must be acknowledged that a grander or nobler enterprise of the kind was never projected.

It is well known that Mr. Astor lost no time in putting it into execution. In the month of July, 1810, a party of sixty men started for the Columbia, by land, under the command of Mr. W. P. Hunt; and, in September following, the Tonquin sailed from New York, for the same destination, via the Pacific. The unhappy fate of the Tonquin, as well as the trials and adventures of the land party to the mouth of the Columbia, have been graphically described by Mr. Washington Irving, in his "Astoria," and are too familiar to the present generation, to need recapitulation. A variety of unforseen disasters, were crowned by the war with England, in 1812. The infant settlement, unprotected by our government and threatened with the attack of a British man-of-war, was treacherously sold by one of Mr. Astor's partners, a Scotchman, named McDougal, to the agents of the Northwest Fur Company, and, with this abandonment, the enterprise virtually terminated.

It is worthy of remark, that, notwithstanding the loss of the Tonquin and the Lark, (the third vessel despatched by Mr. Astor, to Astoria,) the enterprise would eventually have succeeded, had the instructions of its projector been strictly adhered to. Had this been the case, however, the Tonquin would never have fallen a prey to Indian treachery; and it is marvellous to find how prophetically Mr. Astor seems to have foreseen every contingency liable to endanger the success of his darling scheme. It has been objected, in Dr. Greenhow's pamphlet upon the Oregon territory, published by order of Congress, that Mr. Astor was wrong in selecting as allies, so many foreigners by birth, association and education; *but the writer must* have been ignorant that, in those days, none but the *Scotch and Canadians* understood the difficulties of Indian traffic. No *Americans could* be found, possessed of sufficient experience, and Mr.

Astor had no alternative but to abandon his magnificent project, or to pursue it with such means as he could command.

Had Astoria been protected by our government, had the conscientious scruples of President Madison not prevailed, or even had Mr. Astor been properly seconded by his associates and agents, the question of the occupation of the Oregon territory would have long since been settled, instead of, as at present, remaining open to the disputed claims of Great Britain; and we shall do Mr. Astor but justice in saying, that his ambition over-leaped the mere prospect of immediate gain, and aimed at that more enduring wealth—the glory of having anticipated the age, in opening a new avenue to national enterprise, and to the civilization of this continent. From this, we may with propriety infer, that the sagacity of one individual, a self-taught, self-made man, was superior to the combined wisdom of the representatives of American democracy at that day. Very properly, however, their lukewarmness did not escape contemporary censure, though in view of the immense advantages lost by their neglect, this is but poor present consolation.

But it must not be imagined that the enterprise of Mr. Astor was slumbering, while a fortune, more than sufficient for the desires of most men, was jeoparded in the expeditions, by land and sea, to the mouth of the Columbia. The immense outlays, from which it would be long, if ever, before he received returns, rendered, on the contrary, more necessary than ever, the prosecution of the various branches of trade which he had hitherto found so lucrative. The American Fur Company continued its operations in the far west, and his ships ploughed every sea—now, freighted with furs, for France, England, Germany or Russia, and now, with peltries, ginseng and dollars, for China; in the one case, bringing home wines and silks, the motley wares of Indian traffic, wool, fine linens and amber, hareskins and duck; and, in the other, the valuable products of the Celestial empire. His inventive mind organized every possible variety of profitable adventure, and his minute acquaintance with the character of the various European markets, and of the prices of all the articles it could advantageously provide him with, enabled him to furnish his captains, supercargoes and agents, with instructions as precise, and as well adapted to every contingency, as those which Captain Thorn lost his life in disobeying. If it is borne in mind, that he thus sold his own merchandise, obtained at a comparatively cheap price by the ramifications of the fur company through the Indian country, in the best foreign market, and ordered back from there, not only the means of prosecuting the fur traffic, blankets, knives, scizzors, guns, trinkets, &c., but the wares that were then in most demand at home, we shall see how great and rapid must have been the multiplication of his gains.

While his angosies were thus employed in distant seas, Mr. Astor paid minute attention at home to the disposal of his cargoes, distributing them through the country, then so barren of merchandise, and obtaining the best prices, not only in Baltimore, Philadelphia and Boston, but also in Montreal, from whence he still continued to draw large supplies of skins. Endowed with an iron memory, and with a lucidity of combination, which nothing could confuse, he seemed to possess an intuitive knowledge of every detail that occurred in his vast transactions, without consuming, at his counting-house, much more than half the time that most merchants feel compelled to bestow upon their concerns. He was always an early

riser, but generally left business at, or before two o'clock, P. M. His mind, it may be presumed, was rarely idle; and it must have been the ease with which he kept so vast a machine in accurate motion, that suggested to one of his early *proteges*—since, a distinguished leader of the Democratic party, and subsequently, our representative at St. Petersburgh—the remark, that "Mr. Astor was capable of commanding an army of 500,000 men."

As an instance of the magnitude of his views, we may add, that, had his agents succeeded in effecting a permanent settlement at Astoria, he anticipated that the establishment would prove a bill of costs, during the first two years, and would not begin to afford very profitable returns before the expiration of the second decade. During the third decade, it would have netted him something like $1,000,000 per annum. If we esteem him an enterprising merchant, who awaits, for a year, the return of his vessel from Canton or the Pacific, what term shall we apply to the adventurous and self-relying spirit, which, regardless of the "changes and chances of this mortal life," organises and executes a vast and costly project, destined only to mature at the expiration of ten years?

It is, then, the origination and execution of this scheme, which distinguish Mr. Astor above all his predecessors and contemporaries in commerce. Others have, perhaps, amassed as large a fortune, though few have acquired wealth with so little fortuitous aid, and none have had greater obstacles to contend with: for his loss of the Tonquin and the Lark, in the Astorian expedition, of a vessel which perished in the China sea, with her cargo uninsured, and sundry other reverses, including the great conflagration of 1835–6, must reach nearly $1,000,000. He met such dispensations with manly and immovable serenity, and, instead of discouragement, found in them incitements to fresh enterprise. He was noticed at the theatre, on the evening of his reception of the intelligence of the Tonquin's destruction. Other instances might be adduced of his cheerful submission to the "fortune of traffic as well as war."

We should not omit to mention, that the increased value of real property, consequent upon the natural growth of our city, has been one of Mr. Astor's greatest sources of wealth. He early foresaw the greatness to which New York was destined, and always kept a large proportion of his property invested in lots, *or rather acres*. At a certain period, he was wont to convert two-thirds of his annual gains into land; and it is a singular feature in the history of one dealing so constantly, and for so long a period, with such large sums—nay, whose whole wealth was, perhaps, at times upon the bosom of the ocean—that he should never have been known to mortgage a lot.

Thus much of the merchant—of Mr. Astor, in what may be called his public character. Of the private individual, whom we hope still to winter and summer for years, it beseems us not to speak here, though we cannot forego the satisfaction of alluding to the munificent bequest, he is said, upon the best authority, to have left to the city which has been, for nearly three-quarters of a century, the scene of his labors, viz: the sum of $350,000, for the foundation of a great public library. This sum will suffice to purchase 100,000 volumes, to construct a suitable edifice, and to furnish an income ample for the increase and maintenance of the library *and the services of* competent officers. It is generally understood, that *Mr. Joseph G. Cogswell*, so long distinguished among us for his spotless

character and his vast and varied attainments, was induced to resign the honorable post of secretary of legation, under Mr. Washington Irving, in Spain, with a view to prepare a catalogue of books to form the basis of this library. Were the world to be searched, it would hardly be found to contain a person so well fitted for the responsible duties of such an office.

We cannot more appropriately conclude this imperfect sketch of the origin, character and enterprises, of Mr. Astor, than by quoting the following passage from "Wolfgang Menzel's History of the Germans," in which, reference is made to Mr. Astor's recent donation of $20,000 to the "German Society," of this city: "One of the most distinguished Germans in America, is John Jacob Astor, the son of a bailiff, in the village of Waldorp, near Heidelberg, (in the Duchy of Baden.) He learned the trade of a furrier, in his native country, emigrated to America, and there gradually became the richest fur trader in it. He founded, at his own expense, the colony of Astoria, on the northwest coast of America, so charmingly described by Washington Irving, and created the Astor fund, formed with the object to save the German emigrants, on their arrival in New York, from cheating speculators who might abuse their inexperience."

Art. VII.—ANNALS OF AMERICAN COMMERCE.

NUMBER II.

1724.* From the different harbors of Newfoundland, there were exported this year, in fifty-nine vessels, 111,000 quintals of fish.

1727. *Act Respecting Salt.*—The parliament of England passed an act for the importing of salt into Pennsylvania, by British ships, regulated by the acts of navigation, for curing fish, in like manner as was practised in New England and Newfoundland.

1728. *Exports from Carolina.*—The province was divided this year, into two distinct governments, called North and South Carolina. The exports of rice from South Carolina, during ten years, were 26,488 barrels, making 44,081 tons.

All the acts of Governor Burnett, for the prohibition of trade between Albany and Montreal, repealed by the king.

1730. *Whale Fishery, &c.*—The whale fishery on the North American coast, must, at this time, have been very considerable: for there arrived in England, from these coasts, about the month of July, 154 tons of train and whale-oil, and 9,200 of whalebone. In the first fifteen days of July, there arrived at London, from the American sugar colonies, upwards of 10,000 hogsheads of sugar and 15,000 gallons of rum, and half as much more was computed to have been carried to Bristol, Liverpool and Glasgow.

Exports from the Colonies.—The articles of iron and copper ore, beeswax, hemp and raw silk, the products of Virginia, were first exported from that colony to Great Britain; 50,000 weight of hemp, raised in New England and Carolina, were exported to England; 72 bags of wool, the

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* *We commenced these Annals, in the previous number, with the year 1609, and brought them down to 1724. See note, p. 65, Vol. XI., No. 1, Merchants' Magazine.*

product of Jamaica, St. Christopher's and other West India islands, were exported thither, and great quantities of peltry, by the Hudson's Bay Company. "All these articles," says Anderson, in his Annals, "excepting the last, were entirely new, and mostly unexpected productions, in those colonies."

1731. *Commercial State of Massachusetts.*—The colony of Massachusetts now contained 120,000 English inhabitants. Its trade was computed to employ 600 sail of ships and sloops, making at least 38,000 tons, one-half of which traded to Europe. Its fisheries employed from 5,000 to 6,000 men. There were now, in New England, eight furnaces for hollow ware, and nineteen forges.

1732. *Corn and Tobacco a Legal Tender.*—The legislature of Maryland, this year, made tobacco a legal tender, at 1*d.* per pound, and Indian corn, at 20*d.* per bushel.

1733. *Exports from Carolina.*—There were exported, this year, from South Carolina, 36,584 barrels of rice, 2,802 barrels of pitch, 848 barrels of turpentine, 60 tons of lignum vitæ, 20 tons of braziletto wood, 27 tons of sassafras and 8 chests of skins.

1735. *The Population of Massachusetts* was 38,427.

1736. *Trade of the Colonies.*—Maryland employed 130 sail of ships in its trade. The net product of tobacco, exported from that colony and Virginia, amounted to £210,000, and the annual gain of the mother country, from that trade, was above £500,000. The entrances at the port of Philadelphia, this year, were 211, and the clearances 215. The entrances at the port of New York, were 211, and the clearances 222.

1739. *Scheme for Taxing the Colonies.*—During the war with Spain, a scheme for taxing the British colonies was mentioned to Sir Robert Walpole. "I will leave that," said the minister, "for some of my successors, who may have more courage than I have, and be less a friend of commerce than I am. It has been a maxim with me, during my administration, to encourage the trade of the American colonies in the utmost latitude." The minister said more; and the reasons assigned for his maxims and measures were recollected, more than twenty years afterward, to his honor. "Nay," proceeded the minister, "it has been necessary to pass over some irregularities in their trade with Europe: for, by encouraging them to an extensive growing commerce, if they gain £500,000, I am convinced that, in two years afterward, full £250,000 of their gains will be in his majesty's exchequer, by the labor and product of this kingdom. As immense quantities of every kind go thither, and as they increase in their foreign American trade, more of our produce will be wanted. This is taxing them more agreeably to their own constitution and ours." The scheme of taxation was, however, reserved for a bolder minister, and a more eventful period; but the British parliament passed an act, for more effectually securing the trade of the British to America.

1741. *Massachusetts.*—There were now on the stocks, in this state, about 40 topsail vessels, of about 7,000 tons. In Marblehead, there were about 160 fishing-schooners, of about 50 tons each.

1742. *Entries at Philadelphia,* this year, were 230, and the clearances 281.

1743. *Shipping of New England,* about this time, is said to have consisted of at least 1,000 sail, exclusive of fishing barks. Ship-building, one of the principal branches of the trade of Boston, declined at this period.

Indigo.—The culture of indigo was introduced into South Carolina, by Miss Lucas. The cultivation of this valuable plant, being considered of importance, some indigo-seed was soon after imported from the West Indies, where it had already been cultivated with success, and yielded an immense profit. At first, the seed was planted as an experiment; and it was so entirely successful, that several planters turned their immediate attention to the culture of indigo, and studied the art of extracting the dye.

1744. *Trade at New Orleans.*—At the port of New Orleans, in Louisiana, there were several vessels which came from Florida, and Havana and the Bay of Campeachy, to trade for boards, lumber, pitch, drygoods and live stock, to the value of $150,000.

Trade of South Carolina.—At the port of Charleston, 230 vessels were loaded, this year, and 1,500 seamen were employed in the trade of the province.

1745. *Benjamin Franklin* published an account of his new invented fireplaces.

1747. *Tobacco.*—On a medium of three years, there were exported to England, from the American colonies, 40,000,000 of pounds weight of tobacco.

1748. *Bounty on Indigo.*—The parliament passed an act, for allowing a bounty of 6*d.* per pound on all indigo raised in the American plantations, and imported directly into Great Britain from the place of its growth.

Trade of Boston, Portsmouth and Newport.—This year, 500 vessels cleared out from the port of Boston, for a foreign trade; and 430 entered inwards, exclusive of coasting and fishing vessels. The clearances from Portsmouth, N. H., were 121, and the entries 73, beside about 200 coasting sloops and schooners. The clearances from Newport, R. I., were 118, and the entries 56.

1749. *Entries and Clearances* at Boston, Philadelphia and New London, this year, were as follows:—Boston, 489 entries, and 504 clearances; Newport, 37 entries, and 62 clearances; Philadelphia, 303 entries, and 291 clearances.

1750. *The Entries at New York*, were 232, and the clearances 286. Eight vessels cleared from Georgia, and the exports with which they were freighted, were valued at £2,004 sterling.

1751. *Commerce of Perth Amboy.*—The entries at this port, the capital of New Jersey, at that time, were 41, and the clearances 38. There were exported 6,424 barrels of flour, 168,000 pounds of bread, and 17,941 bushels of grain, besides other commodities.

Flax-seed.—Six waggons, loaded with this article, came from the upland parts of Maryland into Baltimore.

Ginsing was found at Stockbridge, Massachusetts. It grew in abundance, in that township, and in the adjacent wilderness.

1753. *Exports from North Carolina*, this year, amounted to 60,000 barrels of tar, 12 barrels of pitch, 10,000 barrels of turpentine and about 30,000 deerskins, besides lumber and other articles.

1754. *Exports from South Carolina*, this year, were 104,682 barrels of rice, and 215 pounds of indigo, which, together with naval s ores, provisions, skins, lumber and other products, amounted to thet value of £240,000 *sterling. Cotton is mentioned* as an article of ex portation *this year.*

Massachusetts Marine Society, was incorporated, by an act of the legislature.

1755. *Population of Colonies.*—Maryland contained 180,000 inhabitants, Rhode Island, 35,939, and New England, 436,936.

1764. *Parliament* passed an act, for granting certain duties, in the British colonies and plantations in America. This was the first act of the British parliament, that ever was passed, in which the design of raising a revenue was expressed. It was called the sugar or molasses act.

1765. *Sugar and Stamp Act.*—The sugar act, passed last year, restricting the intercourse which the American colonies had enjoyed with the West Indies, caused general uneasiness and suspicion; but it was considered as a regulation of trade, and submitted to, though with reluctance.

Parliament, this year, passed an act for raising revenue, by a general stamp duty through all the American colonies. About 250, in the house of commons, voted for it, and 50 against it. In the house of lords, it passed unanimously, without debate, and obtained the royal assent. It produced great excitement, and tumultuous meetings in the colonies. Stamp officers, resigned; vessels sailed from ports, as before; and the courts of justice, though suspended a while, in most of the colonies, at length proceeded to business without stamps.

1766. *The Stamp Act* was repealed, by a majority of 275 to 167.

Salem Marine Society instituted this year. It was designed for the charitable assistance of distressed mariners and their families. It also embraced the design of promoting everything useful to navigation, and of preserving and communicating all discoveries and occurrences, in the voyages of the members, as well as receiving all plans to facilitate the navigation of the port of Salem.

1767. *Duties.*—The plan of taxation was resumed. Parliament passed an act, imposing a duty to be paid by the colonists, on paper, glass, painters' colors and teas, imported into the colonies. It was considered unjust, and dangerous to the essential rights of the colonies. The parliament also passed an act, establishing a custom-house and a board of commissioners, in America.

1768. *Non-Importation Agreement of Merchants.*—In August, the merchants and traders of Boston, generally, subscribed a paper, in which they engaged not to import, nor purchase any kind of goods or merchandise, imported from Great Britain, from January, 1769, to January, 1770, excepting a few enumerated articles; nor to import or purchase of any, who shall import from any other colony in America, within that time, any tea, paper, glass or other goods, commonly imported from Great Britain. The Connecticut and New York merchants, came into similar agreements, the same month, and those of Salem, early in September.

1769. *The Legislature of Virginia*, after being dissolved by the governor, met in a private capacity, and adopted resolutions against importing British goods. This example was followed in other colonies, and the non-importation agreement became general.

1769. *Colonial Trade.*—The trade of Great Britain and her colonies, on the continent of America, on an average of three years, employed 1,078 ships and 28,910 seamen. The value of goods exported from Great Britain, on the same average, was £3,370,000; and of goods exported *from the colonies, to* Great Britain and elsewhere, £3,924,606.

Grape Cultivated.—The vine was successfully cultivated in Virginia.

Richard Henry Lee sent a cask of wine, of the last year's vintage, with a few bottles of older wine, "from our native grape," to Dr. Fothergill, of London. The French planters, upon the river Illinois, made upwards of 100 hogsheads of strong wine, from the wild grapes of the country.

Art. VIII.—ART AND SCIENCE APPLIED TO COMMERCE.

NUMBER II.

During the last year, Justus Liebig, the celebrated German professor of chemistry, addressed a series of letters to Dr. Gardner, member of the Chemical Society, London, which have been republished in this country by D. Appleton & Co. These letters embrace some of the most important points of the science of chemistry, in their application to natural philosophy, physiology, agriculture, and commerce. Some of them treat of subjects which have already been, or will hereafter be, more fully discussed in the larger works of Dr. Liebig. Although intended as mere sketches, and written for the especial purpose of exciting the attention of governments, and an enlightened public, to the necessity of establishing schools of chemistry, and of promoting, by every means, the study of a science so intimately connected with the arts, pursuits, and social well-being of modern civilized nations, they abound with information of great value and interest to all classes. We heartily concur in the avowal made by the author, that, ere long, a knowledge of the principal truths of chemistry will be expected in every educated man; and that it will be as necessary to the statesman, and political economist, the merchant, and practical agriculturist, as it is already indispensable to the physician and the manufacturer. The publication of these lectures in Germany has, we learn, led to the establishment of new professorships in the universities of Gottingen and Wurtzburgh, for the express purpose of facilitating the application of chemical truths to the practical arts of life, and of following up the new line of investigation and research—the bearing of chemistry upon physiology, medicine, commerce, and agriculture—which may be said to be only just begun. The influence which the science of chemistry exercises upon human industry, agriculture, commerce, and manufactures, is now so interesting a topic of investigation, that we are induced to present such of the views of Dr. L. as bear upon subjects pertinent to the design of these numbers.

MANUFACTURE OF SODA FROM SALT; ITS IMPORTANCE IN THE ARTS AND IN COMMERCE. GLASS—SOAP—SULPHURIC ACID. SILVER REFINING. BLEACHING. TRADE IN SULPHUR.

The manufacture of soda from common culinary salt, may be regarded as the foundation of all our modern improvements in the domestic arts; and we may take it as affording an excellent illustration of the dependence of the various branches of human industry and commerce upon each other, and their relation to chemistry.

Soda has been used from time immemorial in the manufacture of soap and glass, two chemical productions, which employ and keep in circulation an immense amount of capital. The quantity of soap consumed by a nation would be no inaccurate measure whereby to estimate its wealth and civilization. Of two countries with an equal amount of population, the wealthiest and most highly civilized will consume the greatest weight of soap. This consumption does not subserve sensual gratification, nor depend upon fashion, but upon the feeling of the *beauty, comfort*, and welfare attendant upon cleanliness; and a *regard to this feeling is coincident* with wealth and civilization. The rich, in the *middle ages, concealed a want of cleanliness*, in their clothes and persons, under a profusion

of costly scents and essences; while they were more luxurious in eating and drinking, in apparel, and horses. With us, a want of cleanliness is equivalent to insupportable misery and misfortune.

Soap belongs to those manufactured products, the money-value of which continually disappears from circulation, and requires to be continually renewed. It is one of the few substances which are entirely consumed by use, leaving no product of any worth. Broken glass and bottles are by no means absolutely worthless; for rags, we may purchase new cloth; but soap-water has no value whatever. It would be interesting to know accurately the amount of capital involved in the manufacture of soap. It is certainly as large as that employed in the coffee trade, with this important difference, as respects Germany, that it is entirely derived from our own soil. France formerly imported soda from Spain, (Spanish soda being of the best quality,) at an annual expenditure of twenty to thirty millions of francs. During the war with England, the price of soda, and consequently of soap and glass, rose continually; and all manufactures suffered in consequence.

The present method of making soda from common salt, was discovered by Le Blanc, at the end of the last century. It was a rich boon for France, and became of the highest importance during the war of Napoleon. In a very short time, it was manufactured to an extraordinary extent, especially at the seat of the soap manufactories. Marseilles possessed, for a time, a monopoly of soda and soap. The policy of Napoleon deprived that city of the advantages derived from this great source of commerce, and thus excited the hostility of the population to his dynasty, which became favorable to the restoration of the Bourbons—a curious result of an improvement in a chemical manufacture! It was not long, however, in reaching England.

In order to prepare the soda of commerce (which is the carbonate) from common salt, it is first converted into Glauber's salt, (sulphate of soda.) For this purpose, eighty pounds weight of concentrated sulphuric acid, (oil of vitriol,) are required, to one hundred pounds of common salt. The duty upon salt checked, for a short time, the full advantage of this discovery; but when the government repealed the duty, and its price was reduced to its minimum, the cost of soda depended upon that of sulphuric acid.

The demand for sulphuric acid now increased to an immense extent; and, to supply it, capital was embarked abundantly, as it afforded an excellent remuneration. The origin and formation of sulphuric acid was studied most carefully; and, from year to year, better, simpler, and cheaper methods for making it, were discovered. With every improvement in the mode of manufacture, its price fell; and its sale increased in an equal ratio.

Sulphuric acid is now manufactured in leaden chambers, of such magnitude that they would contain the whole of an ordinary-sized house. As regards the process and the apparatus, this manufacture has reached its acme—scarcely is either susceptible of improvement. The leaden plates, of which the chambers are constructed, requiring to be joined together with lead, (since tin or solder would be acted on by the acid,) this process was, until lately, as expensive as the plates themselves; but now, by means of the oxy-hydrogen blow-pipe, the plates are cemented together at their edges, by mere fusion, without the intervention of any kind of solder.

And then, as to the process:—According to theory, one hundred pounds weight of sulphur ought to produce three hundred and six pounds of sulphuric acid—in practice, three hundred pounds are actually obtained. The amount of loss is, therefore, too insignificant for consideration.

Again:—Saltpetre being indispensable in making sulphuric acid, the commercial value of that salt had formerly an important influence upon its price. It is true that one hundred pounds of saltpetre, only, are required to one thousand pounds of sulphur; but its cost was four times greater than an equal weight of the latter.

Travellers had observed, near the small seaport of Yquiqui, in the district of Atacama, in Peru, an efflorescence covering the ground over extensive districts. This was found to consist principally of nitrate of soda. Advantage was quickly taken of this discovery. The quantity of this valuable salt proved to be inexhaustible, as it exists in beds extending over more than two hundred square miles. It was brought to England at less than half the freight of the East India saltpetre, (nitrate of potassa;) and as, in the chemical manufacture, neither the potash nor the soda were required, but only the nitric acid, in combination with the alkali, the soda-saltpetre of South America soon supplanted the potash-nitre of the east. The manufacture of sulphuric acid received a new impulse; its price was much diminished, without injury to the manufacturer; and, with the exception of fluctuations, caused by the impediments thrown in the way of the export of sulphur from *Sicily, it soon became* reduced to a minimum, and remained stationary.

Potash-saltpetre is now only employed in the manufacture of gunpowder—it is no longer *in demand for other purposes.* And thus, if government effect a saving of many hundred

thousand pounds annually, in gunpowder, this economy must be attributed to the increased manufacture of sulphuric acid.

We may form an idea of the amount of sulphuric acid consumed, when we find that 50,000 pounds weight are made by a small manufactory, and from 200,000 to 600,000 pounds by a large one, annually. This manufacture causes immense sums to flow annually into Sicily. It has introduced industry and wealth into the arid and desolate districts of Atacama. It has enabled us to obtain platina from its ores at a moderate, and yet remunerating price; since the vats employed for concentrating this acid are constructed of this metal, and cost from 1,000*l.* to 2,000*l.* sterling. It leads to frequent improvements in the manufacture of glass, which continually becomes cheaper, and more beautiful. It enables us to return to our fields all their potash—a most valuable and important manure—in the form of ashes, by substituting soda in the manufacture of glass and soap.

It is impossible to trace, within the compass of a letter, all the ramifications of this tissue of changes and improvements, resulting from one chemical manufacture; but I must still claim your attention to a few more of its most important and immediate results. I have already told you that, in the manufacture of soda from culinary salt, it is first converted into sulphate of soda. In this first part of the process, the action of sulphuric acid produces primary muriatic acid, to the extent of one and a half the amount of the sulphuric acid employed. At first, the profit upon the soda was so great, that no one took the trouble to collect the muriatic acid—indeed, it had no commercial value. A profitable application of it was, however, soon discovered. It is a compound of chlorine; and this substance may be obtained from it purer than from any other source. The bleaching power of chlorine has long been known; but it was only employed upon a large scale after it was obtained from residuary muriatic acid, and it was found that, in combination with lime, it could be transported to distances without inconvenience. Thenceforth it was used for bleaching cotton; and, but for this new bleaching process, it would scarcely have been possible for the cotton manufacture of Great Britain to have attained its present enormous extent—it could not have competed in price with France and Germany. In the old process for bleaching, every piece must be exposed to the air and light during several weeks in the summer, and kept continually moist by manual labor. For this purpose, meadow land, suitably situated, was essential. But a single establishment, near Glasgow, bleaches 1,400 pieces of cotton daily, throughout the year. What an enormous capital would be required to purchase land for this purpose! How greatly would it increase the cost of bleaching, to pay interest on this capital, or to hire so much land in England! This expense would scarcely have been felt in Germany. Beside the diminished expense, the cotton-stuffs bleached with chlorine suffer less, in the hands of skilful workmen, than those bleached in the sun; and already the peasantry in some parts of Germany have adopted it, and find it advantageous.

Another use to which cheap muriatic acid is employed, is the manufacture of glue from bones. Bone contains from 30 to 36 per cent of earthy matter, chiefly phosphate of lime, and the remainder is gelatine. When bones are digested in muriatic acid, they become transparent and flexible, like leather; the earthy matter is dissolved; and, after the acid is all carefully washed away, pieces of glue, of the same shape as the bones, remain, which are soluble in hot water, and adapted to all the purposes of ordinary glue, without further preparation.

Another important application of sulphuric acid may be adduced, namely: to the refining of silver, and the separation of gold, which is always present, in some proportion, in native silver. Silver, as it is usually obtained from mines in Europe, contains, in sixteen ounces, six to eight ounces of copper. When used by the silversmith, or in coining, sixteen ounces must contain, in Germany, thirteen ounces of silver; in England, about fourteen and a half. But this alloy is always made artificially, by mixing pure silver with the due proportion of the copper; and for this purpose the silver must be obtained pure by the refiner. This he formerly effected by amalgamation, or by roasting it with lead; and the cost of this process was about 2*l.* for every hundred weight of silver. In the silver so prepared, about 1-1,200 to 1-2,000th part of gold remained. To effect the separation of this by nitric hydrochloric acid, was more expensive than the value of the gold—it was therefore left in utensils, or circulated in coin, valueless. The copper, too, of the native silver, was of no use whatever. But the 1-1,00th part of gold, being about 1½ per cent of the value of the silver, now covers the cost of refining, and affords an adequate profit to the refiner; so that he effects the separation of the copper, and returns to his employer the whole amount of the pure silver, as well as the copper, without demanding any payment. He is amply remunerated by that minute portion of gold. The new process of refining *is a most beautiful chemical operation.* The granulated metal is boiled in concentrated *sulphuric acid, which dissolves both the* silver and the copper, leaving the gold nearly

pure, in the form of a black powder. The solution is then placed in a leaden vessel containing metallic copper—this is gradually dissolved, and the silver precipitated, in a pure metallic state. The sulphate of copper is also a valuable product, being employed in the manufacture of green and blue pigments.

Other immediate results of the economical production of sulphuric acid, are the general employment of phosphorus matches, and of stearine candles—that beautiful substitute for tallow and wax. Twenty-five years ago, the present prices, and extensive applications of sulphuric and muriatic acids, of soda, phosphorus, &c., would have been considered utterly impossible. Who is able to foresee what new and unthought-of chemical productions, ministering to the service and comforts of mankind, the next twenty-five years may produce?

After these remarks, you will perceive that it is no exaggeration to say, we may fairly judge of the commercial prosperity of a country from the amount of sulphuric acid it consumes. Reflecting upon the important influence which the price of sulphur exercises upon the cost of production of bleached and printed cotton stuffs, soap, glass, &c., and remembering that Great Britain supplies America, Spain, Portugal, and the East, with these, exchanging them for raw cotton, silk, wine, indigo, raisins, &c., &c., we can understand why the English government should have resolved to resort to war with Naples, in order to abolish the sulphur monopoly, which the latter power attempted recently to establish. Nothing could be more opposed to the true interests of Sicily than such a monopoly. Indeed, had it been maintained a few years, it is highly probable that sulphur, the source of her wealth, would have been rendered perfectly valueless to her. Science and industry form a power to which it is dangerous to present impediments. It was not difficult to perceive that the issue would be the entire cessation of the exportation of sulphur from Sicily. In the short period the sulphur monopoly lasted, fifteen patents were taken out for methods to obtain back the sulphuric acid used in making soda. Admitting that these fifteen experiments were not perfectly successful, there can be no doubt it would, ere long, have been accomplished. But then, in gypsum, (sulphate of lime,) and in heavy-spar, (sulphate of barytes,) we possess mountains of sulphuric acid; in galena, (sulphate of lead,) and in iron pyrites, we have no less abundance of sulphur. The problem is, how to separate the sulphuric acid, or the sulphur, from these native stores. Hundreds of thousands of pounds weight of sulphuric acid were prepared from iron pyrites, while the high price of sulphur, consequent upon the monopoly, lasted. We should probably, ere long, have triumphed over all difficulties, and have separated it from gypsum. The impulse has been given, the possibility of the process proved, and it may happen, in a few years, that the inconsiderate financial speculation of Naples may deprive her of that lucrative commerce. In like manner Russia, by her prohibitory system, has lost much of her trade in tallow and potash. One country purchases only from absolute necessity from another, which excludes her own productions from her markets. Instead of the tallow and linseed oil of Russia, Great Britain now uses palm oil and cocoa-nut oil of other countries. Precisely analogous is the combination of workmen against their employers, which has led to the construction of many admirable machines for superseding manual labor. In commerce and industry, every imprudence carries with it its own punishment; every oppression immedtately and sensibly recoils upon the heads of those from whom it emanates.

KYANIZED COTTON DUCK.

The process of Kyanizing, (a term derived from Kyan, an Englishman, who made the discovery,) is simply by immersing the cloth in a solution of corrosive sublimate, where it is to remain for a few days, until it becomes perfectly saturated, and it may then be made up into sails. W. G. Lyford, Esq., the editor of the Baltimore Commercial Journal, has seen a sample, and pronounces it a handsome article, and as unspotted as new, notwithstanding it has been buried in the earth six weeks, in company with another piece of unkyanized. The former, from its imperviousness to moisture, and quality of repelling mildew, and other soiling properties, remains as strong now in its texture, as ever; while the latter is soiled, mildewed, and so rotten, that it can be picked to pieces with the thumb and finger. The kyanized sail is pliable, and immediately after a rain, or severe frosty weather, can be shook out, or handled with ease, in any way that may be required.

Washington Hands, master of the brig Tweed, has published a certificate in the Journal, dated Baltimore, July 2, 1844, in which he states that he had a full suit of sails made of kyanized canvass, on a voyage to the west coast of America; that they fully answered his expectation, and that the canvass did not become mildewed, or otherwise affected by rainy weather.

MERCANTILE LAW DEPARTMENT.

MERCANTILE LAW CASES.

BOTTOMRY AND RESPONDENTIA.

THE contract of bottomry is in the nature of a mortgage of a ship, when the owner of it borrows money to enable him to carry on the voyage, and pledges the keel, or bottom of the ship, as a security for the repayment—and it is understood that, if the ship be lost, the lender also loses his whole money; but if it returns in safety, then he shall receive back his principal, and also the premium or interest stipulated to be paid, however it may exceed the usual or legal rate of interest. When the ship and tackle are brought home, they are liable, as well as the person of the borrower, for the money lent. But when the loan is not made upon the vessel, but upon the goods and merchandises laden therein, which, from their nature, must be sold or exchanged in the course of the voyage, then the borrower, only, is personally bound to answer the contract; who, therefore, in this case, is said to take up money at respondentia. In this consists the difference between bottomry and respondentia, that the one is a loan upon the ship; the other, upon the goods. In the former, the ship and tackle are liable, as well as the person of the borrower; in the latter, for the most part, recourse must be had to the person, only, of the borrower. Another observation is, that, in a loan upon bottomry, the lender runs no risk, though the goods should be lost; and upon respondentia the lender must be paid his principal and interest, though the ship perish, provided the goods are safe. But, in all other respects, the contract of bottomry, and that of respondentia, are upon the same footing; the rules and decisions applicable to one, are applicable to both; and, therefore, in the course of our inquiries, they shall be treated as one and the same thing, it being sufficient to have once marked the distinction between them.—*Park.*

SUIT ON A BOTTOMRY BOND.

In the British Court of Admiralty, March 24th, 1843. In the case of the Dowthorpe. Dr. Lushington gave judgment in this case, which was a question of a very complicated nature, arising principally out of a suit on a bottomry bond given upon the ship and freight, on the vessel's voyage from Singapore to London, but involving other claims upon the property. Mr. T. Humphrey was the owner of 48-64ths of the ship; and Captain Lofty, the master of the Dowthorpe, was the owner of the other 16-64ths. In May, 1842, Humphrey assigned all the freight of the ship, under the charter-party, with benefit of lien upon the cargo, to meet bills drawn at the Cape of Good Hope, for supplies to the ship, as well as wages. The ship arrived in October last; but, in the meantime, Humphrey, the principal owner and assigner of the freight, had become bankrupt. Proceedings were commenced against the vessel in this court, and it was eventually sold. The proceeds of the ship and freight were brought in, subject to various claims, namely: wages of the mariners, a bottomry bond, the assignment, and a mortgage of Humphrey's share of the ship to Messrs. Pease & Co., to cover a banking account. The wages and bottomry bond were, of course, entitled to be first satisfied; but it was the object of the assignee that these demands should be paid out of the proceeds of the ship, and that the freight should be resorted to only in the event of the proceeds of the ship being exhausted, (the bottomry bond, alone, exceeding the amount of freight,) when a question would arise between the mortgagee of the ship and the assignee of the freight, the mortgage being antecedent in date to the deed of assignment of the freight. The proceeds of the ship amounted to 2,661*l.*; the freight was 989*l.*; together, 3,650*l.* The demands upon these proceeds, now before the court, were—the bottomry bond, 1,757*l.*; pilotage, tonnage, and wages, 491*l.*; together, 2,248*l.* The learned judge, in a long and able judgment, examined with great minuteness the question whether the *whole* freight, it having been duly assigned as a *security for debts incurred on account of the freight*, could be exempted from all liability to *the payment of the bottomry bond, till* the proceeds of the ship had first been exhausted:

in doing which, he noticed, and endeavored to reconcile, two apparently conflicting decisions; one of Sir John Nicholl, in the Percy, (3d Haggard's Adm. Rep., 402,) and the other of Lord Stowell, in the Prince Regent, in 1821, (not reported,) adopting the latter, which made the freight liable, though not hypothecated, as the most consistent with the principle that the liability to bear the burthen was co-extensive with the benefit received. The difficulty in this case was increased by reason of the ship and freight not belonging to the same person; but he was of opinion that, both on principle, and on the authority of Lord Stowell, the bottomry bond should be paid by the owners of the ship, and the freight rateably. He was of opinion that Captain Lofty's share of the freight was not duly assigned by the deed, and he then proceeded to adjudicate, in order to prevent further litigation between the parties, on the subordinate questions; leaving all these points, however, open to objections from the different parties interested, if dissatisfied with his decision, the only point peremptorily decided by him being the general principle of liability.

CHARTER-PARTY.

In the Supreme Court of Louisiana. Randall *vs.* Laguerenne, *et al.* The defendants are appellants from a judgment which condemns them to pay, in solido, to the plaintiff, the sum of $1,655 17, being the balance due on an account in which the defendants are charged, at the date of the 2d of January, 1842, with the sum of $3,937 50, for charter-money, due the schooner Bella del Mar, from the 15th of May, 1841, to that date, being seven months and a half, at $525 per month. The answer admits that the defendants chartered the schooner, as stated in the petition; but contends that the most important clauses contained in the contract were violated by the plaintiff, to the injury, loss, and damage of the defendants. It is further alleged in the answer, that a certain quantity of salt was delivered on board of the schooner, at the port of New Orleans, which the captain undertook to deliver at Vera Cruz; but that only a part of it was delivered to the consignees, thereby creating a deficit and actual loss of $2,030, which the defendants claim to be compensated for. It is also stated that, in violation of the second article of the charter-party, the captain and owners of the schooner received on board of her freight not belonging to the charterers, thus creating a concurrence of trade highly injurious to the defendants, who are thereby entitled to claim the sum of $2,000, the penalty imposed upon the plaintiff by the charter-party. The defendants, therefore, ask for judgment in re-convention against the plaintiff, for the sum of $2,361 50, the balance due on their account, after crediting the plaintiff with the whole amount of his demand. The record contains a bill of exceptions to the opinion of the judge *a quo*, permitting the testimony of the captain and crew of the schooner to be produced in evidence. The objection was, that the steward, and other persons whose testimony is adduced in proof, having co-operated with the captain to take away, during the night, the salt belonging to the defendants, ought to be considered as interested parties. The inferior judge did not err. There is no proof in the record of the facts imputed to the witnesses, and it is not even alleged in the answer; but, even supposing such allegations to have been set up, the charges would not render the witnesses incompetent. It is well known that a co-trespasser is competent in behalf of his confederate, being, in no event, interested in the decision of the suit; that a witness is not incompetent because he is or has been in the service of the party who calls him; and that, although all persons employed in the navigation of vessels are direct servants of the owners, in different grades of authority, this does not render them incompetent to testify on behalf of their employers. On the merits, several witnesses have been examined to sustain the defence, but the purport of their testimony does not, in any manner, affect the plaintiff's right to recover. It is true the whole quantity of salt taken on *board was not delivered*, but this is satisfactorily accounted for as being the result of *uncontrollable circumstances*, and the dangers of the sea, such as the inclemency of *weather, and the roughness* of the sea, which caused the vessel to leak so badly, that the

pumps were in constant activity until the vessel reached its destination. The vessel was subsequently taken to a seaport on the Gulf of Mexico, to be repaired; and, from the facts disclosed as to the quality of the salt when received on board, and the leaking of the vessel in consequence of a gale experienced during the voyage, it is not astonishing that the salt, which had been taken light and dry on board, should have fallen short by the quantity established by the evidence. There is no proof that any of the salt was taken out of the vessel during the voyage, except that three or four buckets full were furnished by the captain, of his own salt, which was in the forecastle, for the purpose of salting provisions. This salt did not belong to the cargo. It was a part of about twenty-five sacks, which the captain had purchased, and put on board in the forecastle, and in the house on deck. These last circumstances, which are the only facts adduced in support of the defence, are so unimportant, that it is hardly necessary to notice them. Judgment affirmed.

ACTION TO RECOVER VALUE OF MERCHANDISE LOST BY COLLISION.

In the Supreme Court of Louisiana. Van Hern *vs.* Taylor, *et al.*, owners of steamer George Collier. This was an action to recover the value of some hogsheads of tobacco, shipped on board of the steamboat George Collier, from divers points on the river Mississippi, and which were not delivered in New Orleans pursuant to the bill of lading. The defence set up is, that the defendants are not liable, because their boat, without their fault, or that of the persons having charge of her, was run foul of, on her voyage down the Mississippi, by the steamboat Emperor, then going up the river; by which collision, and unavoidable accident, the plaintiff's tobacco was thrown overboard, and either lost or damaged, &c. There was a judgment below, in favor of the plaintiff, from which the defendants have appealed. On the trial of the case, the testimony of several witnesses was offered to show that the plaintiff's tobacco was lost in consequence of a collision which took place between the George Collier and the steamboat Emperor, without any fault or negligence on the part of the defendants or their agents; and that the collision was an unavoidable accident, &c. This testimony, being objected to by the plaintiff, was rejected by the inferior judge, on the ground that the collision, of itself, is not one of those unavoidable accidents or dangers provided for in the bill of lading. The testimony was, in our opinion, improperly excluded. A common carrier is responsible for the loss or damage of things entrusted to his care, unless the same is occasioned by accidental and uncontrollable events.—(Civil Code, article 2,725.) The terms of the bill of lading free the defendants from any responsibility for losses happening from unavoidable accidents and dangers of the river. Whether the collision was an accidental and uncontrollable event, within the meaning of the code, or was an unavoidable accident and danger of the river, as provided for by the bill of lading, must depend entirely upon the circumstances under which it happened. If there was no fault or carelessness on the part of those who had charge of the George Collier, and it was out of their power to have prevented the collision, we can see no good reason why it should not be considered as an unavoidable accident, and as one of the dangers of the river, within the meaning of the bill of lading. All the writers on the law of insurance mention the running foul of other vessels as one of the perils of the sea, and hold that the insurers must make indemnity for any loss resulting from such accidents, when not imputable to the misconduct or negligence of the master or crew of the ship insured.—(1 Phillips on Insurance, 635 and 636; 2 Marshall, 493.) In Peters *vs.* the Warren Insurance Company, it was held that a loss by collision, without any fault on either side, is a loss by the perils of the sea, within the protection of the policy of insurance.—(14th Peters, 99.) And in 2 Summer's Rep., 567, Judge Story describes "the dangers of the sea, in a bill of lading, to be equivalent to perils of the sea, in a policy of insurance." In Abbott on Shipping, we find the case of a ship in which *goods were conveyed being run down* in daylight, and not in a tempest, by one of *two other ships, that were sailing in an opposite* direction. As, under the circumstances,

there was no blame imputable to the master or crew of the ship, the loss was held to fall within the meaning of the exception in the bill of lading, and to have happened by a peril of the sea.—(Part 3, chap. 4, p. 209.) We, therefore, think that the inferior court erred in rejecting the testimony offered to show that the tobacco, the value of which is sued for, was lost in consequence of a collision, and that such collision happened without any fault on the part of the defendants, or their agents. It is therefore ordered, that the judgment of the parish court be reversed, and that the case be remanded for a new trial, with instruction to the judge of that court to admit the testimony offered to show the circumstances attending the collision, mentioned in the defendant's answer; the plaintiff and appellee to pay the costs of this appeal.

CREDITOR'S ASSETS, SOLD BY UNITED STATES MARSHAL.

In the Supreme Court of Louisiana, before Judge Bullard. Cowell, for the use of the Bank of England, *vs.* Martineau, *et al.** Among other assets surrendered by Kohn, Daron & Co., to their creditors, was an account against Martineau, Cruger & Co., stated in the schedule to amount to $22,254 62. This credit, as well as others belonging to the bankrupts, was sold by the marshal of the United States for the eastern district of Louisiana, and George Whitman, the present appellant, became the purchaser, for the price of one hundred and forty dollars. Thereupon the assignee, Cammack, gave him a written certificate of purchase, which recites the purchase, at the marshal's sale, of "an account against Martineau, Cruger & Co., for $22,254 62;" and then goes on to say that, in consideration of the sum of one hundred and forty dollars, the assignee transfers to the purchaser "all claims, of every nature and kind whatsoever, which the said Kohn, Daron & Co., had against Martineau, Cruger & Co., subrogating him in their place and stead." It appears in evidence that Kohn, Daron & Co., having a judgment against Martineau, Cruger & Co., had proceeded by garnishment against Bushrod Jenkins, a debtor of the latter house, and obtained a judgment against him in November, 1840, for $4,560 19; which, being deducted from the original amount, left the balance of $22,254 62, set forth in the schedule; and that the judgment thus obtained against Jenkins was, in 1842, transferred to H. M. Shiff, by Kohn, Daron & Co., previously to their going into bankruptcy. This judgment was, after the bankruptcy, re-transferred to their assignee. Under these circumstances Whitman, under his purchase at the marshal's sale, claims to be the owner of the judgment against Jenkins, as a part of the claim against Martineau, Cruger & Co. This question was presented on cross rules taken by the claimant Whitman, and by Cammack the assignee, not in very clerical and technical form, but to which informality neither party excepts; and the judgment being adverse to the pretensions of Whitman, he has appealed. The court did not err. Independently of the parol evidence, received without opposition, and of the testimony of the witnesses who were objected to, it is shown that, at the time of the surrender of Kohn, Daron & Co., they were not owners of that part of the original claim for which they had obtained a judgment against Jenkins. It had been transferred to Shiff. The balance, only, was assigned for the benefit of the creditors, and embraced in the schedule. The marshal's sale was made with reference to the schedule, and we are to consider that nothing was sold which was not therein set forth. Although the amount for which judgment had been obtained against Jenkins formed originally a part of the claim against Martineau, Cruger & Co., yet so much of that debt had merged in the judgment, and formed a distinct object, or piece of property. The arrangements entered into with Jenkins were such as to amount to a novation, and *quo ad* the original debtors, Martineau, Cruger & Co., they had a right to insist that their original debt was extinguished *pro tanto*. That judgment, in our opinion, did not pass by the *marshal's* sale; but when it was re-transferred by Shiff to the assignee, it was for the *benefit of all the* creditors. Kohn, Daron & Co. had already given credit for that amount,

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and thereby treated it as a payment; for, in their schedule, they put down only the balance as a part of their assets; and the same amount is set forth in the account of the marshal's sale. The fact that the re-transfer took place before the marshal's sale, does not alter the case, inasmuch as the sale was made with reference to the schedule. This view of the case makes it unnecessary to examine the bills of exceptions taken during the progress of the trial. Judgment affirmed.

ENDORSER OF A PROMISSORY NOTE.

In the Supreme Court of Louisiana, Judge Murphy on the bench, in the case of Beal *vs.* Alexander. This suit was brought against the defendant, a resident from Mississippi, as the endorser of a note drawn to his order by the bank of Grenada, located in that state, at Grenada, and made payable at the counting-house of the plaintiff, in the city of New Orleans. A number of bales of cotton were attached, in the hands of Nugent, Turpin & Watt, as garnishees, which were afterwards bonded by the latter. The defendant, through the counsel appointed to represent him, pleaded the general issue, and averred that he had been induced to endorse the note sued on under the idea, conveyed and held out to him by Beal at the time, that he was merely endorsing the same as director of the bank of Grenada; and that, without such representation, and the suggestion on the part of Beal that he was not binding himself personally, he would not have endorsed the said note. He further pleaded, as a bar to this action, the pendency of another suit in Mississippi, between the plaintiff and himself, on the same note, and prayed for the dismissal of this suit on the ground that the property attached herein, and whereby alone jurisdiction could be vested in the court below, was not his property, but that of the commercial firm of Chisholm & Minter, of Mississippi. The latter intervened, claiming the dissolution of the attachment, and alleging that, at the time of levying the same, and previous thereto, they were the lawful owners of the cotton seized, and are entitled to said cotton, or its proceeds, in the hands of Nugent, Turpin & Watt; and that, if they be not entitled to the cotton as absolute owners, they have a lien or privilege thereon, for loans and advances to the said C. P. Alexander, made in good faith, in the state of Mississippi, and before the cotton was shipped, to the amount of $10,000, &c. A peremptory exception was taken by the plaintiff to the petition of intervention, on the ground that, long prior to the filing thereof, the property attached had been bonded by the garnishees, and released from seizure under the condition of satisfying such judgment as might be rendered in the suit. This exception having been sustained, and judgment given below in favor of the plaintiff, both the defendant and the interveners have appealed. The right of Chisholm & Minter to claim the cotton, or its proceeds, by intervention in this suit, after it had been bonded, was, in our opinion, correctly disallowed. Property attached is represented by the bond given for its release only with regard to the attaching creditor, and for the sole purpose of satisfying any judgment he may obtain in the suit; but as to third persons, who set up a claim to it as owners after it has been bonded, they must look to the property itself, which is no longer under the control of the court.—(1 Robinson, p. 277. 18 La., p. 57.) As relates to the suit between the original parties, an attempt has been made to show, by testimony, that, at the suggestion of the plaintiff, the note was endorsed by Alexander, and by one Sims, who were directors of the bank of Grenada, without responsibility, and merely to give it a negotiable form, and a more business-like appearance. But this hypothesis, so improbable and absurd in itself, is entirely inconsistent with the evidence in the case. It is shown that the bank passed a resolution to transfer to the defendant and Sims a sufficient number of notes to indemnify them in the sum of $9,000, for which, the resolution says, they had become liable as endorsers of two notes for the bank, one of which is the very note sued on; and in addition to this, it is shown that, on receiving the notice of protest, *the defendant wrote to the plaintiff*, urging him not to bring suit against him, fully *admitting his liability, and proposing to him* terms of settlement. Judgment affirmed.

MONTHLY COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE.

This is the period of the year usually the most dull, in relation to commercial affairs. The spring business is past, and some little time must elapse before dealers make their appearance for the fall purchases. A large portion of the community, therefore, seize this opportunity to leave the noise and bustle of the city, for a few weeks of recreation at the watering and other places of fashionable resort. These circumstances contribute to impart a degree of languor to the markets, more especially in stocks, in which speculation has run high, and the absence of large operators takes from the activity of the market. Under these circumstances, however, prices have sustained themselves reasonably well—a fact which may be attributed to the great and increasing abundance of money. The rate in the discount-market is scarcely 4 per cent, and may be had freely at call, at that rate. The banks have not the means of employing the large sums at their disposal safely and profitably; and are, therefore, in their turn, the solicitors for good paper. The business of the country has been transacted mostly for cash, or short paper; and the class of borrowers is too limited, and their wants too small, in proportion to the sums to loan, to allow the institutions to advance the rate of money beyond what it has averaged for the last year. The banks have, however, striven hard to raise the value of money; and at one period, when speculation in both cotton and stocks ran high, they succeeded, temporarily, in forcing up the rate as high as 6 a 7 per cent, in this city The necessary result followed, viz: private deposits, which had been lying idle, rather than to seek employ at 2 per cent, were withdrawn, and "placed" at these advanced rates, and capital from other cities came here for investment, creating a competition, which speedily reduced the rates. Meantime, the paper discounted by the banks matured; and, not being replaced by new paper, again deprived them of the means of investment. Gradually, the cotton went abroad, releasing large sums. The revenues of the federal government increased, throwing large sums into deposit banks; and the tolls on the public works largely increased—all forming a means of indirect taxation, which draws funds from the channels of business, and places them with banks to loan. The extent to which this has been done, is observable in the following table, showing the comparative receipts for the first six months of the year on the leading works, and the federal revenues at Boston and New York:—

Receipts of Public Works, January 1st, to July 1st.

	1843.	1844.	Increase.
New York State Canals, 75 days,	$719,570	$877,879	$158,309
Ohio State Canals,	138,175	228,593	90,618
Pennsylvania State Improvements,	466,359	597,706	131,347
Western Railroad, Mass.,	224,603	291,723	67,120
Eastern " "	213,120	296,761	83,641
Tonawanda Railroad, N. Y.,	19,197	39,702	20,594
Buffalo and Attica Railroad, N. Y.,	11,936	27,335	15,399
Michigan Central Railroad, Mich.,	50,817	98,574	47,730
Reading Railroad, Pa.,	140,032	224,963	84,931
Housatonic Railroad, Conn.,	55,652	68,184	12,591
Louisville Canal, Ky.,	95,005	107,274	12,269
Little Miami Railroad, Ohio,	4,117	7,686	3,529
Concord Railroad, N. H.,	108,000	139,080	31,080
Total, 13 works,	$2,236,623	$3,003,460	$766,847
Customs, port of New York,	4,646,271	11,421,591	6,775,326
" Boston,	1,274,368	2,748,556	1,474,188
Total works and customs,	$8,157,262	$17,173,613	$9,015,361

In relation to the tolls, it is observable that the rates have been much reduced this *year; and that, therefore,* to effect an increase in the amount received, requires a great

enhancement of the quantities conveyed to market, which have indeed been unusually large, producing corresponding low prices. Yet the growing crops are represented to be in a condition more flourishing than ever before, as a great whole. The floods of the Mississippi have indeed done some injury to the cotton on its border; but, we apprehend, not to so great an extent as has been represented. The revenues of the federal government present a very gratifying increase over last year, when the rates of customs duties were the same; showing to how great an extent the import business has revived. The official returns for the port of New York show the following comparative business for the six months ending July 1st:—

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF THE PORT OF NEW YORK.

	Exports.			*Imports.*		
Year.	Domestic.	Foreign.	Total.	Paying duty.	Free.	Total.
1843,..	$8,650,672	$2,185,885	$10,836,557	$12,886,411	$11,944,264	$24,830,675
1844,..	14,676,724	2,444,310	17,119,034	32,023,702	6,656,260	38,679,962
Incr.,..	$6,026,052	$258,425	$6,282,477	$19,137,291	.....	$13,849,297
Decr.,.	.....	.....	.....	.....	$5,287,404	.....

The increase of domestic produce from this port has arisen from the unusual quantity of cotton which has come here this year for shipment abroad, instead of going abroad direct. This is, therefore, not an indication of the general increase of the exports of the country, but simply of this port. On the other hand, the imports paying duty have increased near $20,000,000, or 166 per cent, over the corresponding period of last year, when the same tariff was in operation. The import of free goods has, it appears, declined over $5,000,000. This decline is mostly, however, in specie, which has ceased to arrive, goods coming now in preference. Some difference is also apparent in the import of coffee and tea, which constitute the chief value of the free articles. Last year, the import of the former article was large, because it was supposed not improbable that a duty would be levied. The large imports induced a fall in prices, and a decline in the import this year. The duties collected for the first half of the two years 1843 and 1844, are as follows:—

			DUTIES PER CENT.	
Year.	Imports paying duty.	Duties.	On dutiable imports.	On whole imports.
1843,.....	$12,886,411	$4,646,271	36.05	18
1844,.....	32,023,702	11,421,597	35.69	30

The large amount of free goods, last year, made the average duties on the whole import 18 per cent, only. This year, the average is 30 per cent on the whole import, and 35.69 per cent on the dutiable goods. Although the imports are more than last year, they are by no means large, as compared with corresponding periods of former years, as follows:—

IMPORTS INTO THE PORT OF NEW YORK FOR THE FIRST SIX MONTHS, FOR SEVERAL YEARS.

1833,.....	$28,631,138	1839,.....	$50,859,001
1834,.....	41,213,663	1840,.....	27,588,658
1835,.....	38,857,682	1841,.....	40,670,311
1836,.....	64,693,894	1842,.....	39,411,716
1837,.....	54,398,856	1843,.....	24,830,675
1838,.....	38,499,108	1844,.....	38,679,962
Average,.....	$44,382,390		$37,006,683

The average import at this city, for the last six years, it appears, was, for the six years ending in 1838, $44,382,390; for the four years ending in 1842, $39,632,421; and for this year and the *last, $31,755,318;* being the smallest average of any two former *successive years. The imports in the last six* years are less, by the considerable sum o *$44,000,000, than during the preceding six* years. The effect upon the exchanges b

been to cause a considerable accession of specie to this country; and, although the imports this year have, to so important a figure, exceeded those of last year, the effect has been, not to cause a shipment of specie, but merely to check the great influx of the precious metals which took place last year. The probability is, that although the imports will doubtless be large for the last quarter of this year, yet but little specie will go abroad. The quantity of cotton on hand here, July 1st, exceeded, by 130,000 bales, that on hand at the same period last year; constituting a value of over $8,000,000, on which additional bills are based, to meet the fall trade. Hence, notwithstanding the large import of this year, bills are still low, or under the point at which specie is shipped.

Money is constantly becoming more abundant; and, in many of the banks, the lines of discount being full, or at the point which by law cannot be exceeded, (viz: twice and a half the capital,) large sums are lying idle, more especially of the government funds, which they cannot use. We have before alluded to the manner in which the deposits of the government are placed with the banks, viz:—Three banks are selected, and receive the money alternately, each successive month; so that, in one month, the deposits are all paid into one bank. In the succeeding month, they are paid into another bank, and drafts commence upon the first. These continue through the second month, by which time the first bank is exhausted, and deposits commence in the third bank. The effect of this movement upon the market, when the receipts from customs were not large, was trivial. As the surplus money accumulated, however, it contributed greatly to speculation in stocks, and to promote fluctuations in prices, and to accumulate funds in two or three banks, at the expense of those with which the accounts of duty-paying merchants are kept. The accumulation of government deposits has progressed in the New York banks as follows:—

November, 1843,.....	$1,641,760	May, 1844,.....	$2,158,032
February, 1844,.....	1,680,511	July, 1844,.....	4,384,161

The increase of money lying idle, from May to July, was, it appears, $2,226,000; and this was mostly placed with banks in which, the line of discounts being full, there was no ability to employ the funds thus deposited with them. The following table gives the capital of the government banks in New York, with the amount they are entitled to loan by law, their actual loans May 1st, the amount of government deposites with them at that time, and the amount of the deposits, per treasurer's return, June 24th, 1844. The Bank of Commerce, and the American Exchange bank, are under the free law, and not limited in their loans:—

GOVERNMENT DEPOSIT BANKS IN NEW YORK.

	Capital.	Entitled to loan.	Actual loans, May 1st.	Gov. deposits, May 1st.	Deposits, June 24.
Merchants' Bank,.....	$1,490,000	$3,725,000	$3,763,713	$1,731,478	$1,066,890
Bank of Commerce,...	3,274,760	8,186,900	4,670,000	.....	1,870,472
" America,.....	2,000,000	5,000,000	4,195,000	307,274	1,327,519
American Ex. Bank,..	1,150,800	2,877,000	2,614,000	119,280	119,280
Total,.....	$7,915,560	$19,798,900	$15,242,713	$2,158,032	$4,384,161

It is observable that the Merchants' bank, the Bank of America, and the Exchange bank, had loaned, in May, $10,572,713, and they were entitled to loan $11,612,000. Consequently, according to law, they could increase their discounts only $1,039,287; whereas the government deposits had increased $2,226,129. Hence, $1,186,842 had been drawn from other banks, and placed where it was either not employed at all, or only applied "at call," to operations in stocks. Now, as the government funds are derivable from the customs, and are paid by the merchants, the operation is simply to draw *individual deposits out of* those banks where private accounts are, to place them with the *government banks, where* they cannot be used at all; operating, under present circumstances, *precisely as the sub-treasury* would have acted, had it been in actual operation. That is, *it draws money from* the mercantile community, and locks it up where it cannot be used

at all. In this way, those banks suffer most which have the most extensive circle of commercial customers. We may instance the City bank, and compare its position with that of the Bank of America, as follows:—

	Capital.	Entitled to loan.	Loans, May 1.	Deposits.	June 24.
City bank,.....	$720,000	$1,839,014	$1,479,014	$980,822	$680,822
Bank of America,....	2,000,000	5,000,000	4,195,000	307,274	1,327,519

The deposits of the City bank, for June, are an estimate. Now, it would appear that the City bank had not filled its line of discounts by $360,000, or half its capital, in May. The Bank of America was about $800,000 short of the legal amount. The operation of paying duties was, therefore, to take from the City bank $300,000 of mercantile deposits, where the whole amount could have been employed in commercial loans, and place with the Bank of America $1,020,275, where only $800,000 could be used in any event. Thus, over $200,000 of commercial capital is completely paralyzed by the transaction. A just manner of distributing the deposits would seem to be, to place them with each city bank to an amount equal to the proportion of customs drawn from each, as nearly as could be ascertained, and to require security for the deposit. There would then be no disturbance in the course of business, as now. The present system obliges one bank to curtail to one set of customers, and another bank to push out its loans to a considerable extent, to another, and different set; and only temporarily—because, in a few days, the deposits, by an arbitrary arrangement, are withdrawn, merely to place them with another bank. The above return shows that the means of the Bank of Commerce and the Bank of America increased, in thirty days, near $3,000,000; which sum, to remunerate the banks for their trouble, must be promptly employed, in the form of loans—making a very material expansion. In the succeeding thirty days, all those loans must be withdrawn, because the deposits pass into other hands. From these causes spring, in an eminent degree, those fluctuations in stock, which have been so marked in their character during the past few weeks.

The advices from England, by the late packets, give intelligence of continual changes in the commercial regulations of that country. The bill to renew the charter of the Bank of England has become a law, nearly on the terms which we stated in a former article. The only material alteration from the original proposition of Sir Robert Peel, has been to allow of issues, by the country banks, to an extent equal to the maximum of their issues for the twelve weeks ending April 27, 1844, instead of the average for the two last years. The effect of this is to add about £600,000 to the volume of the country circulation. In the course of debate, it was also intimated by the premier that he was inclined to the repeal of the legal tender act; the effect of which repeal would be, to compel the country banks to redeem their own issues in specie, instead of, as now, in Bank of England notes; and therefore to require them to keep on hand a sufficient sum of gold. A great modification has also taken place in the duties on sugar. The old duties were on sugar, the produce of British plantations, 24*s.* per cwt., or 5½ cents per lb.; and on all foreign sugar, 63*s.* per cwt., or 13½ cents per lb. The new duties are so formed as to make a distinction between sugar, the produce of slave labor, and that produced by free labor. The former remains at the duty of 63*s.* per cwt., and the latter is to be admitted at 34*s.*, British sugar remaining the same. The effect of this, it was supposed, would be, to admit annually about 40,000 tons of sugar, as an additional supply, into English consumption. The existing treaty, however, between this country and Great Britain, requires the produce of this country to be admitted into England on terms of the most favored nation; and, to meet this emergency, the new sugar bill provides that sugar, the produce of countries with which such treaties exist, *shall be admitted* at the duty of 34*s.*, if accompanied with a *document certifying that the sugar is the bona fide* growth of that country. This provision *was inserted in consequence of fears* that West India sugar, the growth of the West Indies *or the Brazils, would be admitted* into England, via the United States ports, a

Louisiana sugar. The new bill may possibly lead to the exportation of some Louisiana sugar to England for consumption, its place in this market to be supplied by that of foreign growth. Under the new duty, it has been supposed that the consumption of sugar will, in some degree, be enhanced, in consequence of a general reduction in price. Efforts are also in progress, the object of which is to obtain a reduction in the duties on tobacco and on tea. The high imposts upon the former article tend, in an eminent degree, to the encouragement of smuggling; and the high price of the latter article, it is supposed, prevents, in some degree, the consumption of tea, and therefore diminishes the intercourse with China. Hence the efforts for repeal.

The great principle on which the commercial and financial policy of the present government is based, is that of low prices and large exports, in order to maintain the supremacy of English manufactures in the markets of the world. Opposed to the government, however, is a large class of economists, who contend for what is called an improved currency—that is, the issue of a government paper money, redeemable on demand, in the precious metals, at no fixed price. The present Bank of England notes are redeemable in gold, at £3 17*s.* 6*d.* per ounce; because an ounce of standard gold will, at the fixed weight of sovereigns, coin into that proportion. Hence a paper £, no matter how many may be afloat, always represents the same quantity of gold; and to this fact is ascribed, by the economists alluded to, the violent fluctuations which overtake the market. They propose that there shall be no fixed price, as they term it, for gold; or, in other words, that the paper may be allowed to depreciate, as compared with gold, according to the quantity issued; and that the rate of that depreciation shall be called the market price of gold, and the paper be a legal tender, at that rate. An English sovereign, of standard fineness, weighs 123 grains. A five-pound note, therefore, promises to pay 615 grains of standard gold. They propose, therefore, that if the paper depreciates 10 per cent, the promiser shall be released if he pays 554 grains. This destruction of all money contracts is called "allowing gold to find its market value, like all other commodities." The object of such a measure is to lighten taxation, by compelling the government creditors to take less than is their due for the dividends. For instance, a ton of iron may be worth abroad £5, or 615 grains of standard gold; and at home, in the proposed paper currency, £7—the paper having depreciated 40 per cent. Hence, the ton of iron will pay an English commercial debt on the continent, or elsewhere, out of the kingdom, only of £5; but it will pay a government creditor at home, in the false medium, a debt equal to £7. This disguised mode of repudiation is advocated by a large class in England; but, as yet, has met with nothing but ridicule from the government.

WOOL.

Statement exhibiting the quantity and value of Wool imported into the United States, for the years ending 30th September, 1840, 1841, 1842, and 1843.

WOOL UNMANUFACTURED, NOT EXCEEDING 8 CTS. PER POUND.

1840,.....	lbs. 9,303,992	$675,009	1842,.....	lbs. 10,637,251	$685,649
1841,.....	14,409,764	981,281	1843,.....	4,773,083	462,795

EXCEEDING 8 CENTS PER POUND.

1840,.....	lbs. 594,748	$171,067	1842,.....	lbs. 783,701	$111,733
1841,.....	596,606	273,672	1843,.....	210,570	66,387

Under the act of 1832, wool not exceeding 8 cts. per lb., was free of duty on importation. Under the act of 1842, wool not exceeding 7 cents per lb., is subject to a duty of 5 per cent ad valorem.

COARSE WOOL, UNDER 7 CENTS PER POUND.

Imported in 1843,.....lbs.	4,773,083	$462,788
Deduct imported under 25th section of act of 1842,....	51,059	3,639
Total,.....lbs.	4,722,024	$459,149

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

DUTIES ON ARTICLES USED IN SHIP-BUILDING.

strative Statement of the Cost and Duties paid on the following articles used in construction of a ship of 500 tons, a brig of 250 tons, and a schooner of 100 s; prepared for the Hon. Mr. Hamlin, Member of Congress from Maine, by a nber of the House long engaged in ship-building.

SHIP OF 500 TONS.

	Cost.	Duty.
000 lbs. iron,.....	$1,500	$525
500 lbs. copper, &c.,.....	870	140
000 lbs. cordage,.....	2,000	1,000
000 lbs. chains and anchors,.....	1,550	550
52 pieces sail duck,.....	760	75
Total,.....	$6,675	$2,290

BRIG OF 250 TONS.

000 lbs. iron,.....	$900	$315
000 lbs. copper, &c.,.....	500	80
000 lbs. cordage,.....	1,100	550
500 lbs. chains and anchors,.....	650	262
45 pieces sail duck,.....	650	67
Total,.....	$3,800	$1,274

SCHOONER OF 100 TONS.

000 lbs. iron,.....	$500	$175
800 lbs. copper, &c.,.....	200	32
000 lbs. cordage,.....	500	250
000 lbs. chains and anchors,.....	300	125
24 pieces sail duck,.....	410	35
Total,.....	$1,910	$617

SHIPPING IN GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

e number and tonnage of sailing vessels, registered in England, on the 31st day of nber, 1843, was as follows:—

	Number.	Tons.
r 50 tons each,.....	6,155	185,832
50 tons each,.....	10,627	2,019,414
1 vessels under 50 tons,.....	337	8,119
" over 50 tons,.....	309	63,923
otland, sailing vessels,.....	3,549	481,670
" steam vessels,.....	128	
land, sailing vessels,.....	1,921	198,419
" steamers,.....	81	

SAILING VESSELS WHICH ENTERED INWARDS, COASTWISE, IN THE YEAR 1843.

	Number.	Tonnage.
gland,.....	98,295	12,532,207
otland,.....	19,053	
land,.....	16,476	
gland,.. Steamers.....	9,294	
otland,.. Steamers.....	2,688	
land,... Steamers.....	2,651	

e *amount of tonnage of vessels which* cleared outwards, coastwise, in the same ye- *was 12,571,031 tons.*

The number and tonnage of British sailing vessels which cleared inwards during the year, from the colonies, were—

	Number.	Tonnage.
	6,404	1,405,054
Cleared outwards,.....	6,264	1,427,283
Steamers from the colonies,.....	344	72,477
" cleared outwards for the colonies,.....	357	80,185

The number and tonnage of British vessels to and from foreign ports, in the same period, were—

	Number.	Tonnage.
Sailing vessels inwards,.....	11,263	1,737,210
" outwards,.....	11,223	1,791,755
Steamers inwards,.....	2,439	.....
" outwards,.....	2,314	.....
Foreign sailing vessels, inwards,.....	8,259	.....
" " " outwards,.....	7,375	.....
" steamers, inwards,.....	538	.....
" " outwards,.....	548	.....
Vessels built and registered in 1843,.....	653	77,932
Vessels wrecked, sold, and broken up,.....	778	132,734

BRITISH EXPORTS OF METALS AND METALLIC WARES TO THE UNITED STATES.

The following particulars are extracted from official returns of declared value of British and Irish produce and manufactures, exported from the United Kingdom in the ten years, from 1833 to 1842, both inclusive:—

Years.	Brass and copper manufactures.	Iron and steel, wrought and unwrought.	Tin & pewter wares, tin unwrought, and tin plates.	Total.
1833,.....	£158,456	£412,515	£141,258	£712,229
1834,.....	87,840	322,156	168,840	578,836
1835,.....	166,060	408,368	193,901	768,329
1836,.....	270,028	912,387	246,378	1,428,793
1837,.....	115,782	489,309	139,868	744,959
1838,.....	140,722	634,395	241,296	1,026,413
1839,.....	129,226	801,198	200,505	1,130,929
1840,.....	107,473	355,534	174,033	637,040
1841,.....	104,153	626,532	223,809	954,494
1842,.....	89,952	394,854	144,451	629,257
Total,.	£1,369,692	£5,357,248	£1,874,339	£8,601,279

AMERICAN CHEESE EXPORTED TO ENGLAND.

The British Parliament have recently ordered a return to be published of the quantity of cheese imported into the United Kingdom, for the year 1843. The whole amount, from all countries, was 20,091,568 lbs.

More than one-fourth of this was from the United States; and the difference between the years 1841 and 1842 shows the effect of Sir Robert Peel's new tariff on this article. In 1841, the amount exported from the United States to Great Britain, was 654,000 lbs. In 1843, the amount increased to 5,410,944 lbs.

The American cheese is spoken of as being much of it "very rich, and fine flavored." The price ranges generally in the two extremes, from estimating the pound sterling at *$4 85, at from* $10 per hundred to $13, and the duty is about $2 67.

Great complaint is made, on the other side of the Atlantic, that the American cheese is *not packed well enough*, and that it arrives in England in bad order.

E OF THE UNITED STATES WITH THE PRINCIPAL COMMERCIAL CITIES OF WESTERN EUROPE.

eign correspondent of the Richmond Enquirer furnishes the following statement nports, in 1843, of produce of various kinds, from the United States, at the six continental ports of Europe, to wit: Havre, Bremen, Antwerp, Hamburgh, Amand Rotterdam; and also the number of vessels arriving at each port, from the States, and the number of emigrants sailing therefrom, from the country. The the correspondent of the Enquirer is dated at Frankfort-on-the-Maine, March

Havre.

.....bales	299,318	Rosin,.....bbls.	10,629
.....hhds.	14,733	Lead,.....pigs	70,047
.....tcs.	12,129	Quercitron,.....casks	305
s,.....bbls.	7,974	Skins,.....No.	29,509
.....	16,146	Whalebone,.....lbs.	357,280
.....casks	3,163	No. of vessels arriving from the	
.....bbls.	994	United States,.....	248
.....casks	1,316	No. of emigrants who embarked	
.....bbls.	2,159	for the United States,.....	8,500

of passage, varied from 75 to 100 francs, without provisions, which cost from 40 nes more. Average fare, everything included, about $25.

Bremen.

and stems,.....hhds.	35,478	Flour,.....bbls.	784
.....boxes	1,579	Pork and beef,.....hhds.	934
.....bales	288	Turpentine,.....casks	50
.....	20,053	Castor oil,.....	45
.....tcs.	10,284	Sperm candles,.....boxes	25
il,.....bbls.	34,825	Hops,.....bales	532
on,.....casks	270	Sassafras,.....lbs.	43,922
hes,.....bbls.	374	No. of vessels, (indirect,) arriving	
s,.....	3,300	from United States,.....	144
ne,.....lbs.	167,161	No. of emigrants who embarked	
.....bbls.	11,987	for United States,.....	9,844
.....lbs.	334,400		

of passage, (provisions, &c., furnished by the owners of the ship,) from 20 to 25 s, according to the season of the year, and port of destination. Average fare, 7.

Antwerp.

.....bales	33,144	Whale oil,.....bbls.	6,666
.....hhds.	15,340	Pot ashes,.....	13,014
.....tcs.	7,907		

other articles, such as rosin, quercitron, and whalebone, were also received in antities, but the correspondent was unable to ascertain the precise extent.]

of vessels arriving from United States,.....	86
of emigrants who embarked for the United States,.....	2,749

of passage, fare included, $23.

Hamburgh.

.....bales	26,247	Castor oil,.....casks	23
and stems,.....hhds.	1,607	Turpentine,.....	75
.....tcs.	9,460	Clover-seed,.....	104
l,.....bbls.	13,000	Number of arrivals from United	
ne,.....lbs.	278,000	States, direct,.....	62
pearl ashes,.....casks	497	Number under American flag, in-	
.....bbls.	12,630	direct,.....	35
.....*bales*	*1,263*	Number of emigrants who em-	
.....*boxes*	47	barked for United States,.....	1,956
.....*casks*	252		

Average price of passage, provisions, &c., included, 25 rix dollars—about $19 50 United States currency.

AMSTERDAM.

Cotton,.....bales	8,500	Turpentine,.....casks	499
Tobacco and stems,.....hhds.	11,970	Flour,.....bbls.	234
Rice,.....tcs.	3,577	Pork,.....	210
Pot ashes,.....bbls.	6,631	Number of arrivals from United States,.....	46
Rosin,.....	9,448	Number of indirect American vessels from United States,.....	9
Whale oil,.....casks	3,055	Number of emigrants, not exceeding.....	250
Whalebone,.....lbs.	72,105		
Lead,.....pigs	3,081		
Staves,.....No.	190,280		
Tallow,.....casks	209		

Price of passage, including fare, $24 50.

ROTTERDAM.

Cotton,.....bales	8,293	Staves,.....No.	250,000
Tobacco and stems,.....hhds.	15,171	Deer-skins,.....bales	29
Rice,.....tcs.	2,877	Furs,.....boxes	36
Pot and pearl ashes,.....bbls.	5,475	Tallow,.....casks	10
Rosin,.....	7,660	Sperm candles,.....boxes	5
Whale oil,.....bbls.	11,404	Pitch,.....casks	70
Whalebone,.....lbs.	5,060	No. of arrivals from U. States,....	57
Lead,.....pigs	1,254	Indirect American vessels,.....	4
Quercitron,.....casks	203	Number of emigrants, about.....	300

Price of passage, including provisions, $23 50.

Of the 624 bottoms employed in carrying the foregoing produce of the United States, 414 were American, 147 Hanseatic, 27 French, 22 Swedish and Norwegian, 8 English, 5 Hanoverian, 4 Belgian, 4 Dutch, 2 Prussian, and 1 Danish.

The sales of tobacco at the five ports on the North sea, amounted, in 1843, to 68,976 hhds.; less by 13,015 hhds., than in 1842. Prices in 1842 ruled so low, compared with former years, that the trade overstocked itself.

STATISTICS OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK.

The total number of names in the New York Directory, for 1843, was.....	59,027
Additional names this year, 1844,.....	1,161
Total number in directory, for 1844,.....	60,188

The alterations and removals in 1843–44, were as follows:—Names expunged, 19,144; names added, 20,305; removals, 17,040. Total alterations and removals, 56,489. The number of foreign consuls and commercial agents residing in New York, is 47. The number of banks of deposit and discount, 32; of banks for savings, 4. The capital of the former amounts to $27,480,600. There are 53 fire and life insurance companies, and agencies of foreign companies, with a capital of $17,712,517. The number of marine insurance companies in New York is 18. The capital of ten of these amounts to $3,564,517; the capital of the life and trust companies to $8,000,000. There are 99 lines of inland and coastwise packets, and 10 regular foreign lines. The number of churches in the city is as follows:—African, 8; Baptist, 22; Congregational, 5; Dutch Reformed, 19; Friends, or Quakers, 4; Jewish Synagogues, 6; Lutheran, 3; Methodist Episcopal, 22; Associated Methodist, 1; Presbyterian, 27; Reformed Presbyterian, 2; Associate Reformed Presbyterian, 2; Protestant Episcopal, 30; Roman Catholic, 15; *Unitarian, 2; Universalist,* 4; Welsh Presbyterian and Methodist, 2; American Primitive Methodist, 1; Bethel Particular Baptist, 1; Suffolk-street Christian Church, 1; German Rationalist, 1; German Universal Christian, 1; Mariners, 1; Methodist Society, 1;

rmons, 1; New Jerusalem, 2; Primitive Christian Church of the Disciples, 1; Uni- Brethren, 1; Wesleyan Methodist, 1; Second Advent, 2; Christian Union, (trans- dental,) 1—in all, 190 societies or churches. Averaging the salary of each teacher or tor at $1,000, the salaries of all would amount to $190,000; and estimating the cost ach church edifice at $5,000, (a low estimate, including even the several societies that rship in halls, &c.,) would amount to $950,000. The number of moral and religious ieties is 40. The number of periodicals, 46; and daily, weekly, semi-weekly, and weekly newspapers, 62.

CROTON WATER REVENUE.

e revenue received from water, for the year ending 30th April, 1844, was $87,211 22
m scrap iron, lead, dross, &c., ... 2,751 97

Making the aggregate receipts of the department..... $89,963 19

The number of permits granted, to May 1st, 1844, was 6,855, the full rent per annum which would be $92,626 31. Of these water-takers, 4,932 are occupants of private ellings, paying $50,479 58. The amount from other miscellaneous sources was 1,811 98. During the year there had been expended, in completion of the pipes, re- rs, and expenses of the department, $223,198 76. These in future will, it is expect- , not exceed $20,000 annually, exclusive of new pipes.

WEALTH AND RESOURCES OF ENGLAND.

Mr. Laing, in his prize essay, in Chambers's Journal, states that the united annual in- nes of the people of Great Britain are estimated at from 290,000,000*l.* to 310,000,000*l.*, le more than two years of which would pay off the whole national debt. Accumulated rings can scarcely find an outlet. In the course of about six years, 1,700 miles of rail- y have been completed, at a cost of 54,000,000*l.* The length of navigable canals in ngland exceeds 2,200 miles. The number of inhabited houses in Great Britain is 3,911; being nearly double the number in 1831. The value of British produce and nufactures annually exported, has risen, in the course of the last fifteen years, from out 35,000,000*l.*, to upwards of 50,000,000*l.* In 1843, there were consumed 35,127,000 . of tea, 22,779,000 lbs. of tobacco, 7,000,000 gallons of wine, and 3,825,000 cwts. of gar. In the same year, there were used 39,814,000 bushels of malt, and 35,190,000 llons of British spirits. On the 1st of January, 1831, the United Kingdom owned ,983 vessels, having a tonnage of 3,724,104. Upwards of 3,000,000 tons of this ship- ng leave port annually. Since 1820, upwards of 60,000,000*l.* of British capital have en invested in foreign loans.

COFFEE CROP FOR 1843.

The great increase of the production of coffee, and a diminution of its consumption in any countries, have materially decreased the value of the article itself. But few know e vast quantity now produced. The statistics for 1843 give the following result:—

azil, (1,170,000 bags,)..... pounds	170,000,000
va and Sumatra, (1,450,000 bags,).....	140,000,000
ba,.....	45,000,000
. Domingo,.....	38,000,000
rto Rico, La Guayra, &c.,.....	36,000,000
itish West Indies,.....	10,000,000
ylon,.....	7,000,000
st Indies and Mocha,.....	6,000,000
rench colonies,.....	4,000,000
*tch West Indies,.....	3,000,000
Total,..... pounds	453,000,000

RAILROAD STATISTICS.

HOUSATONIC RAILROAD.

The length of this road, as we learn from the report of the directors, of the 20th June, 1844, from the tide-water at Bridgeport, to the north line of the state of Connecticut, is 73 90-100 miles. In this distance, there are twelve regular stations for the receipt and discharge of passengers and freight, namely: at Stepney, Botsford's, Newtown, Hawleyville, Brookfield, New Milford, Gaylord's Bridge, Kent, Cornwall Bridge, West Cornwall, Falls Village, and North Canaan. The maximum grade is 40 feet to the mile, but more than half the length of the road is passed on grades of under 26 feet to the mile. The total expenditure, for the construction of the road and appendages, is $1,244,122 91. This expenditure, for a road of 74 miles in length, with an ample outfit of engines and cars, will bear a favorable comparison with any other railroad in the United States, of similar construction.

The capital stock, by the resolutions of the company, and in pursuance of the charter, has been extended to 1,500 shares, of $100 each.

The whole subscription amounts to..		shares, 8,696
No payments have been made on	shares, 195	
And but partial payments on	" 334	
Making liable to forfeiture,		shares, 529
And paid in full, and issued,		shares, 8,167

Should the shares liable to forfeiture be sold, and purchased by the company, it will hold for future subscription—

The stock now liable to forfeiture,	shares, 529
And the unsubscribed shares,	" 6,304
Making a total of	shares, 6,833

The cash and bills receivable actually received for stock, are as follows:—

On 8,167 shares, paid in full,	$816,700 00
" 334 " in part,	7,112 20
Total from capital stock,	$823,812 20

The board of directors request particular attention to the cost of the road, as stated, being $1,244,122 91
And the amount received from capital stock, 823,812 20

As the difference between these two amounts, $420,310 71

forms the original debt of the company, and created its numerous embarrassments. This deficiency of capital, and consequent indebtedness, have compelled the company to prosecute its business on the most unfavorable terms; until, at length, it became more than probable that the whole property would be sacrificed to discharge the certified debt, scarcely exceeding in amount one-fifth of the cost of the road and appendages. Hence, also, arose the impression that the business of the company did not meet its expenses; and, because the profits of current business were not adequate, in two years, to reimburse one-fifth of what ought to have been capital, in addition to interest and expenses, that the whole enterprise was visionary, and the shares of no value. This disaster was, however, averted by the energy and confidence of those who, having embarked in the company with full knowledge of its resources and prospects, retained their belief in the *intrinsic value of the road.* The whole indebtedness of the company, with interest, to the *1st of June, 1844,* amounts to $398,726 36, classified as follows:—

st class—Certified notes, interest at 7 per cent.,		$277,138 97
d " Land claim notes, interest at 6 per cent.,		20,797 34
d " Claims secured by 2d mortgage, do.,		69,427 89
th " Demands with no special security,		31,362 16
Total,		$398,726 26

It will be observed that a debt of $420,310 71, bearing interest in part from 1841, and ll from 1842, is thus liquidated on 1st June, 1844, at $398,726 26. The receipts from ıe business of the road have then not only paid all current expenses of its management nd repairs, and also the completion of many appendages, essential for the extended de-ıands of trade, but have also actually discharged the interest, and reduced the principal.

The following is a statement of the receipts of the road, for a period of five months, in ach of the years 1842, 1843, and 1844:—

	1842.	1843.	1844.
leceipts of January,	$8,072 85	$11,826 87	$15,305 07
" February,	6,011 75	10,212 36	15,534 03
" March,	6,083 41	13,563 93	14,065 47
" April,	5,779 23	9,738 24	10,101 06
" May,	6,363 03	10,310 64	13,142 67
Total, for 5 months,	$32,310 27	$55,652 04	$68,148 30

DISTANCES ON THE HOUSATONIC RAILROAD.

	M.		
Bridgeport,		Cornwall Bridge,	55
Stepney,	10	West Cornwall,	59
Botsford,	15	Falls Village,	66
Newtown,	19	North Canaan,	73
Hawleysville,	23	Sheffield,	80
Brookfield,	29	Gt. Barrington,	86
New Milford,	35	Van Deusenville,	88
Gaylord's Bridge,	41	West Stockbridge,	95
Kent,	47		

RECEIPTS ON RAILWAYS IN GREAT BRITAIN, FOR 1843.

Herapath's Railway Journal, of January last, has given a table of the nett income yield-ed by 1,586 miles of railway, in operation in England at that period, constructed at the enormous cost of £56,135,100 sterling; or about $280,000,000. Yet, with this extrava-gant outlay of capital, we find the average nett receipts for 1843 exceed 5 per cent.

The receipts from passengers were	£3,593,247
" from merchandise and mails,	1,234,408
	£4,827,655
The expenses,	1,931,062
Nett receipts,	£2,896,593 st'g.

Of the above fifty-six millions of pounds sterling, £4,900,000 was expended in 1843, towards completing several works commenced, while only 66 miles were added to the system during that year. That some idea may be formed of the immense expenditure on English railways, compared with American, it is sufficient to state that the former cost, on an average, (single with double tracks,) £35,374, or $176,000 per mile; while the latter, for a single track, and equal in extent to 5,000 miles, cost $20,000 per mile, or £4,000 sterling; a sum not equal, by $15,000, to the average cost of right of way, and land damages in *England, per mile. It will* hardly be credited that two roads, leading *from the centre of London, in length only* 3¼ miles each, cost about $11,000,000, viz.:

the London and Blackwell, £1,289,080; and the London and Greenwich, £1,026,101; or over $1,500,000 per mile. The total receipts for 1842, from 1,520 miles, were £4,341,781; showing an excess in favor of 1843, over 1842, of £485,864 sterling. The number of passengers transported was 17,255,085 In remarking on the table which produces this result, the editor says—"We cannot but congratulate the railway world on the more healthy state of their affairs, and the improvement of their prospects. Railway property has risen considerably in value, and bids fair to be more settled and stable."

STATISTICS OF THE EASTERN RAILROAD.

The annual report of the Eastern Railroad has been distributed to the stockholders, and will be laid before the legislature of Massachusetts at its next session. From this report, we gather the following facts:—The whole cost of the road, in Massachusetts, has been $2,361,098. There has been received, from 18,000 shares, $1,800,000. State scrip, $500,000; and sundry accounts, $61,098. The Eastern, in New Hampshire, has cost $482,500. The trains of the two companies have made 8,583 trips, amounting to 196,097 miles, and conveying 443,403 passengers; and on the Marblehead Branch, 34,531; making a total of 447,934 passengers transported during the past year. The receipts have been, from Marblehead Branch, $3,460, and $293,401 from main line of road. Of the whole receipts, $257,674 were from passengers, $28,393 from freight, $10,068 from mails, and $124 from incidental sources. The expenses have been $103,452; leaving the nett earnings of both roads $193,308. To this amount, rents of real estate, and Portsmouth Bridge dividends, add $5,969; making a total of income, $199,278. The payments have been $25,000 for interest on state scrip, $78,855 for dividends on stock in January, and $79,887 for dividends payable on and after July 3d. The sum of payments, $183,742, when deducted, leaves a balance of $15,535 to profit and loss; which, with profits on sale of state scrip, $806; Boston depot estate, $858; Cunard wharf, $2,500; East Boston lands, $5,864; and sundry estates, $313, makes an addition to surplus fund, after paying interest balances of $3,132, to amount of $22,744. The old surplus on reserved fund was $19,920; and that account is now increased to $42,664. The report concludes by stating, as the result of the year's operations, a dividend of 7 per cent, and an addition of $22,744 to the surplus fund. The expenses of the company were $7,202 less than last year, and $46,012 less than the year before last.

HIGH AND LOW FARE ON RAILROADS.

On the 1st of April last, the fare on the Western railroad was increased to $6 00 for passengers through, and to 3½ cts. per mile for way-passengers; yet it appears that the increase of revenue from passengers since that date, compared with the corresponding months of 1843, is no greater than it was in the three previous months, compared with the corresponding months of 1842, viz: 18 per cent. While the number of passengers on other routes has increased from 25 to 50 per cent., there must have been an actual diminution on the Western, for the gain in income is less than the increase of rates. This diminution in the number of passengers has, according to a writer in the Boston Atlas, caused a diminution in the ratio of increase on freight, although the rates of freight remain about as before. The revenue from freight, during the three months previous to the advance on passengers' fare, showed an increase of 52 per cent, compared with the same months in 1843; since the advance, only 37 per cent. "And is not the solution an easy one?" asks the above writer. "If the passengers diminish, do not the traffickers in goods—those *who are to buy and* sell—diminish also. If the customer does not come, does not trade *languish?*"

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

TARIFF OF COMMISSIONS AND CHARGES,

ER REGULATIONS OF TRADE, ADOPTED BY THE CHAMBER OF COMMERCE OF CHARLESTON, SOUTH CAROLINA.

Commissions—Maximum Rates.	Per ct.
urchase and shipment of produce on foreign account,	2½
ing bills for the same,	2½
urchase and shipment of produce on domestic account,	2½
ing bills for the same,	1
purchase and shipment of produce, either on foreign or domestic account,	
unds in hand,	2½
of foreign consignments,	5
antee of the same,	2½
of domestic consignments,	5
antee of the same,	2½
tting the proceeds of sales in produce,	2½
" " " in bills, with guarantee,	2½
" " " in bills, without "	1
uring freights,	5
cting "	2½
s disbursements, with funds in hand,	2½
" drawing bills,	5
orsing bills of exchange, (domestic,)	2½
" " (foreign,)	2½
ds consigned to, or lodged with merchants for sale, and afterwards ordered reshipped, or delivered up, on the amount of invoice,	2½
rarding goods, 25 cents per package.	
cting insurance, on amount insured,	½
vering losses, if litigated,	5
" without litigation, if under acceptance,	2½
" " " if not under acceptance,	1
cting money by power of attorney, if litigated,	5
" " " without litigation,	2½
oes of vessels in distress, where the goods are bonded, lodged in the custom-, or stored, and afterwards reshipped—on amount of invoice, (except on y and specie,)	2½
lry and specie,	½
cting bills of exchange,	½
tting for the same in bills, without guarantee,	½

ed, October, 1843.

hipping charges on cotton are—

ge,	12½	cents per bale.
,	2	"
,	4	"
furnishing bagging and twine,	10	"
,	6¼	"
re,	4	"

hipping charges on rice are—

ge, whole casks,	12½	cents each.
half "	6¼	"
casks, half casks, and bags,	2	"
, whole casks,	6¼ a 12½	"
half "	4¼ a 8½	"
bags,	1¼ a 2½	"
ge, casks and half casks,	14	"
" filling up, and extra hooping,	20	"
into half casks,	$1 00	per cask.
bags, and sewing,	1 00	"
e, whole and half casks,	4	each.
bags,	1	"

And storage, while awaiting shipment, of 8 cents per week on bales, and whole and half casks, for the first and last weeks, and 4 cents for the intermediate weeks.

On all other goods, the charges actually paid in each particular case.

Adopted October, 1843.

Standard of Freights.

When vessels are freighted by the ton, and no special agreement is made respecting the proportion of tonnage, the following standard shall regulate, viz: that the articles, the bulk of which shall compose a ton, to equal a ton of heavy materials, shall be in weight as follows:—Coffee, in casks, 1,568 lbs. nett; in bags, 1,830 lbs. nett. Cocoa, in casks, 1,120 lbs. nett; in bags, 1,307 lbs. nett. Pimento, in casks, 952 lbs. nett; in bags, 1,100 lbs. nett. All heavy goods, as bar, pig, and rod iron, 2,240 lbs. nett. All heavy dye-woods, rice, sugar, and all other heavy goods, 2,240 lbs. nett. Flour of 1¾ cwt., 8 barrels. Beef, pork, fish, (pickled,) tallow, 6 barrels. Pitch, tar, and turpentine, of the capacity of 32 gallons each, 6 barrels. Oil, wine, brandy, and other liquors, reckoning the full contents of casks, 200 gallons. Grain, in casks, 22 bushels. Salt, (in casks,) fine, 36, coarse, 31 bushels. Sea coal, 29 bushels. Mahogany, square timber, plank, boards, bale goods, and dry goods, in casks, boxes, and trunks, 40 cubic feet. Dried hides, 1,120 lbs. nett. Raw silk, 896 lbs. nett. Tobacco, ton, 1,000 lbs. nett. Tobacco, in hhds., 1,200 lbs. nett.—*Adopted March*, 1823.

Measurement of Goods.

Goods of measurement on freight from other ports, delivered here, if deemed incorrectly measured, may be re-measured here by the port-wardens, or other proper persons agreed on for that purpose, whose measurement shall be final and conclusive; and the charge incurred by measuring shall be paid by him who is found in error.—*Adopted March*, 1823.

Losses on Goods by Fire, &c., and by Bad Debts.

Loss of goods arising from fire, robbery, theft, or accident, shall, in all cases, be borne by the owner thereof, unless a breach of orders to insure has been made, or negligence and inattention practised by the consignee or his agents.

Losses by bad debts, in the sale of goods, shall always be borne by the owners, unless sold contrary to written orders, or there be an express agreement to guaranty.—*Adopted March*, 1823.

Goods sold by weight and by the thousand.

Goods sold by the weight, to be sold by the 100 lbs., instead of 112 lbs.; or by the ton of 2,000 lbs., instead of 2,240 lbs.—*Adopted March*, 1825.

Staves, hoops, &c., by the short thousand.—*Adopted May*, 1839.

Custom as to the Staple Productions of South Carolina.

Rice.—The standard weight of a barrel is 600 lbs. nett. When the wharfinger weighs a barrel, the turn of the scale is allowed, and a draft of 4 lbs. per barrel. The tare is ascertained by weighing three barrels of a small parcel, and five of a large parcel, if required. The purchaser pays 50 cents for each barrel, and for any re-cooperage after having been once coopered, unless a special agreement is made to the contrary.

Cotton.—In bags and square bales, turn of the scale, and 1 per cent draft, but no tare for all necessary baling and roping, except for wooden hoops, the actual tare of which is allowed.—*Adopted March*, 1825.

What shall be a delivery of Goods by the Master of a Vessel.

In the absence of any express law on the subject, the Chamber recommends that the following regulations be adopted by all interested:—

That a notification in all the daily newspapers of the city, or other proper notice, be given by consignees or agents of vessels, at what time a vessel will be ready to discharge, and at what wharf; stating, also, that if goods shall be landed, and not taken in charge by the consignee or his agent, the master or agent of the vessel shall, at sunset, put such goods into the charge and possession of the wharfinger, who shall then store the same, at the expense and risk of the respective owners and claimants; and such delivery shall be sufficient to discharge the master from all future responsibility, and entitle him to his freight-money.

That in order more effectually to prevent disputes in regard to the proper delivery of goods from alongside the discharging vessel, it be recommended to ship's agents to have, respectively, a clerk to deliver the goods, and to record the same in a book to be kept for that purpose. When goods are to be delivered to a drayman, an order shall be written

consignee for such delivery, in which shall be inserted the name of the drayman, number of his license.—*Adopted 8th February*, 1839.

and Tares to be allowed to the Purchasers of Imported Articles for internal consumption.

ars, in hhds., ½ per cent draft, and 12 per cent tare.
ars, in boxes, ½ per cent draft, and 15 per cent tare.
ars, in flour barrels, ½ per cent draft, and 20 lbs. each tare.
ars, in flour barrels, ½ per cent draft, and (if filled in Charleston) 18 lbs. each tare.
ars, in bags of grass, ½ per cent draft, and 2 per cent tare.
ars, in mats or bales, ½ per cent draft, and 2 per cent tare.
ee, in hhds., ½ per cent draft, and 12 per cent tare.
ee, in flour barrels, ½ per cent draft, and 18 lbs. per bbl.
ee, in bags of grass, ½ per cent draft, and 2 per cent tare.
ee, in bags of linen, 2 per cent tare.
ee, in mats or bales, ½ per cent draft, and 3 per cent tare.
oa, in casks, custom-house draft, and 10 per cent tare.
oa, in bags of linen, 2 per cent tare.
ento, in bags of linen, 2 per cent tare.
ento, in casks, custom-house draft, and 16 per cent tare.
per, in bags of linen, 2 per cent tare.
s, custom-house draft and tare. ¶
go, of foreign growth, custom-house draft; tare, in casks, 15 per cent; in barrels, cent; in ceroons, 10 per cent; in bags, 3 per cent.
ton, of foreign growth, covered with linen, custom-house draft, 2 per cent tare.
other articles, custom-house draft and tare.
ese, candles, chocolate, soap, and all small articles sold by weight, the actual tare.
uors are guaged by Gunter's scale, agreeably to the act of Congress.—*Revised May*,

Custom-House Drafts and Duties.

Drafts.

following allowances are made by law for drafts on articles subject to duty by t:—

any quantity of 1 cwt.,	1	pound.
" above 1 cwt., and not exceeding 2 cwt.,	2	"
" above 2 cwt., and not exceeding 3 cwt.,	3	"
" above 3 cwt., and not exceeding 10 cwt.,	4	"
" above 10 cwt., and not exceeding 18 cwt.,	7	"
" above 18 cwt.,	9	"

[*Act of 2d March*, 1799, *Section* 58.

re.—When the draft established by law exceeds ½ per cent, then the custom-house only ½ per cent.
ien the draft established by law is less than ½ per cent, then the custom-house allows he draft according to the table.
e principle observed is always to allow the lowest rate, whether it be ascertained by r centage or by the table.

Tares allowed by law.

On sugar in casks, except loaf,	12	per cent.
On sugar in boxes,	15	"
On sugar in bags or mats,	5	"
On cheese in hampers or baskets,	10	"
On cheese in boxes,	20	"
On candles in boxes,	8	"
On chocolate in boxes,	10	"
On cotton in bales,	2	"
On cotton in ceroons,	6	"
On glauber salts in casks,	8	"
On nails in casks,	8	"
On sugar-candy in boxes,	10	"
On soap in boxes,	10	"

On shot in casks,	3 per cent.
On twine in casks,	12 "
On twine in bales,	3 "

On all other goods, paying a specific duty, according to the invoice thereof, or actual weight.

On any of the preceding articles, the importer may have the invoice tare allowed, if he makes his election at the time of making his entry, and obtains the consent of the collector and naval officer thereto. [*Act of 2d March*, 1799, *Section* 58.

PRESENTATION OF DRAFTS DRAWN AT SIGHT.

Resolved, That it has always been the practice of the merchants of Charleston to pay, on presentation, drafts drawn at sight.

Resolved, That, in the opinion of this Chamber, this practice establishes the legal right of the presenter of a sight draft to demand payment on presentation.—*Adopted May* 27, 1844.

REGULATIONS FOR THE PUBLIC ASSAYER FOR THE STATE OF SOUTH CAROLINA.

1st. The assayer shall accurately assay all gold and silver brought to him for that purpose, including coins, genuine and counterfeit.

2d. He shall keep a book, and in it require persons bringing metals for examination to enter their names, their residence, and such other particulars as the assayer may deem advisable, and as may, from time to time, be required by the appointing powers.

3d. He shall, if the parties desire it, make the gold or silver assayed into bars or ingots, on each of which shall be stamped—1st. Its regular number, beginning at No. 1. 2d. The gross weight of the assayed bar or ingot. 3d. The value per pennyweight of that bar or ingot, according to the mint standard. 4th. The amount in pennyweights of pure gold or silver in said bar or ingot. 5th. The date of the assay; and, 6th. The name of the owner.

4th. He shall keep a book, in which shall be entered, as specified above, the gross and specific weights of each bar or ingot, the amount of precious metals contained in it, the name of the person owning, and that of the person bringing it, the day it was entered in his book, and the number of the bar or ingot. A report of these particulars shall be lodged regularly in the bank of the state, where it shall be recorded for public inspection and reference.

5th. In assaying the gold, the silver it contains is to be estimated and reckoned in fixing the value of the bar or ingot, under the second and third specifications of the third regulation above.

The charges shall not exceed the following rates:—

FOR GOLD.

Ingots under 100 pennyweights,	$1 00
" between 100 and 400 pennyweights, ... per pennyweight	1 cent
" between 400 and 1,000 "	1 cent

for the first 400, and ½ of a cent additional for each pennyweight over 400.

Ingots over 1,000 pennyweights, the same charge as the last, with ½ of a cent additional for all over 1,000 pennyweights.

FOR SILVER.

Sums under $100,	$1 00
" between $100 and $500,	2 00
" between $500 and $1,000,	3 00
" *of $1,000, and upwards*,	4 00

If the gold should be in the form of grains, it is to be run into ingots or bars, at the *expense of the assayer*, provided it does not exceed 1,000 pennyweights; and if it exceeds

hat weight, he has the privilege of charging three cents an ounce for the excess. The ame is applicable to bars or ingots that it may be necessary to recast.

CHARGE FOR EXAMINING COINS.

If it be simply to make such examination as to decide upon the genuine or counterfeit haracter of the coin, not to exceed fifty cents. If the coin should be counterfeit, and the xact composition be required, not to exceed $2.

OFFICE OF ASSAYER.

It is stated, in the Charleston Courier, that Mr. T. Lawrence Smith, a gentleman of cientific attainments, has been appointed assayer for South Carolina, under the act passed t the last session of the legislature, creating that office, and directing the Bank of the tate to carry out its objects. The Bank of the State has invited the other banks to a con- erence, to mature the arrangements; and a portion of the banks have agreed to receive he bars or ingots at the rate of 101 3-10 cents per pennyweight of pure gold; the bal- ance of its value being deducted to cover the cost of sending to the mint, interest, insu- ance, &c.

VENEZUELA—EXPORTATION OF CATTLE.

The following is a copy of a law recently passed by the Congress of Venezuela, on the ubject of the exportation of cattle from that republic. The features are:—That, for fif- een years from the date of its publication, which was made at Caraccas, March 9, 1844, o duty, either national or municipal, shall be levied or taken on cattle, or meats of any escription, or any article the product of cattle, exported to foreign countries, through any f the ports of the republic open to trade; and all duties that may have been collected at he various slaughter-houses licensed for that purpose, subsequent to such passage, and efore its provisions shall have been known, shall be refunded, by virtue of acts of the rovincial Assemblies. With the view of facilitating the reimbursement of duty thus ollected, the collectors of customs at the respective ports shall give a certificate to the erson, specifying the quantity of meat so exported, the name of the exporter, as well as hose of the vessel and master. Five arrobas, 125 lbs., of hung or cured meat, without ones, or fifteen arrobas, 375 lbs., of pickled, with bones, to be considered equal to one ead of cattle. The duty to be refunded, on account of the salt employed for curing, and xported, to be 45 c. for each head of cattle. The law also exempts from taxation, for en years, establishments for tanning, and for the manufacture of candles, soap, &c. This xemption to take place from January, 1845. No port duties shall be levied on vessels xporting to foreign countries any of the articles enumerated above, in quantity equal to wo-thirds, at least, of their cargo; and vessels exporting such articles, through any port r place on the sea-coast, shall not be obliged to return to the port whence they obtained heir license to load, but may proceed direct to a foreign country from their place of land- ng. In such case, however, such vessels will not be entitled to the reimbursement of the alt duty, or to exemption from port duties; but the latter to be paid by such persons as ecame surety for the payment of them.

TAX ON SALES OF TEAS IN MASSACHUSETTS.

An act was passed at the last session of the legislature of Massachusetts, and approved y the governor, March 12th, 1844, reducing the tax upon all sales of teas, which may e imported from foreign countries into any port of Massachusetts, and sold by the im- orters within *thirty days after such importation*, to one-quarter of one per cent on the *mount thereof, instead of the tax heretofore* by law provided.

NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

LIGHT NEAR CORK LEDGE, HARWICH HARBOR.

The following notice to mariners, transmitted to the department of state at Washington, by the United States consul at London, is published officially, for the benefit of those whom it may concern:—

"TRINITY HOUSE, London, May 14, 1844.

"Notice is hereby given, that, in compliance with the request of the merchants, shipowners, and masters of vessels, and other persons interested in the navigation of the east coast of England, this corporation has caused a floating light vessel to be prepared, for the purpose of exhibiting a light near to the Cork Ledge, off Harwich harbor; and mariners are to observe that a bright revolving light will be exhibited on board the same, on the evening of Wednesday, the 1st of May next, and thenceforth continued every night, from sunset to sunrise.

"The light vessel, which has been already moored at her station, lies in 4½ fathoms at low water, spring tides, and with the following marks and compass bearings, viz:—

The S. W. land will open off Harwich Naze,	S. W. by W. ½ W.
Walton Martello Tower just open N. of the East Martello Tower,	N. W. ¾ N.
Harwich High Lighthouse,	N. W. ¾ W.
Platter's Buoy,	N. W. by W. ½ W.
Andrew's Buoy,	W. by N. ½ N.
Inner Ridge Buoy,	W. ¾ N.
Rough Buoy,	S. E. ¼ E.
Cutler Buoy,	E. N. E.

"N. B.—The Cork Ledge Buoy will be continued at its usual station until the exhibition of the light on the 1st of May aforesaid; after which it will be taken away.

By order. J. HERBERT, Secretary."

NEW SHOAL NEAR SAMBO.

Captain Owen, R. N., employed in H. M. steamship Columbia, in the survey of the Bay of Fundy, and parts of the shores of Nova Scotia, has made the following report to Vice-Admiral Sir Charles Adam, dated

"HALIFAX HARBOR, May 12, 1844.

"I proceeded yesterday to Sambro lighthouse, to observe its precise position geographically, relative to the observatory in the dock-yard; and, having procured the necessary observations, was about to return to this port, when the Columbia touched on a sunken rock, or ledge, not known before to exist in that place. There was 11 fathoms of water just before the vessel touched, 8 fathoms on the starboard, and 18 fathoms on the port paddle-box. The Columbia grazed over the rock without entireiy losing her way, so that there must have been at least 12 feet of water on the part she touched, (her draft being 12 feet 6 inches,) at 4 P. M., or low water. The bearing and observations at the moment after the vessel touched, being then in 8 fathoms of water, were as follows:—Black Rock, or Western Sisters, ½ East Magnetic, half a mile by calculation; summit of lighthouse to water line, (as we computed it by measure,) the distance was 1-6th, (or 10,000 feet,) bearing Southwest Magnetic."

MILITARY MOLE IN THE HARBOR OF NAPLES.

The department of state, under date of May 27, 1844, has published the following official notice to mariners:—

"Information has been received from the United States Consul at Naples, that the military mole in that harbor has been prolonged so far, that its foundations cross the direct line which vessels have been in the habit of taking from the great entrance (*bocca grande*) of Capri, to the lighthouse on the mole; and they should be careful to avoid the new obstacle thus created."

OLAND LIGHT BEACON, &c.

following notice to mariners, dated Stockholm, April 5th, 1844, is published for the of all whom it may concern:—

he representation of the marine administration, the king has, under date of Feb- decreed that, on the northern part of the island of Oland, a light beacon, of ninety itude, shall be erected, provided with a lenticular light of third order, which will fixed light, and cost, according to estimation, forty thousand Swedish dollars. It decreed that the light on Ostersaholm be altered from a coal fire into a revolving lar light.

n the representation of H. B. M. Consul at Lisbon, the repairs upon the light-house ı have been postponed, and the light will therefore not be discontinued until June 15.

LIGHTHOUSE ON PLYMOUTH BREAKWATER.

erbert, Secretary of the Trinity House corporation, under date London, May 14th, ıas issued the following notice for the benefit of mariners:—

›tice is hereby given, that the lighthouse which has been for some time past in the of erection on the west end of the breakwater in Plymouth Sound, under the di- of the Right Honorable the Lords Commissioners of Admiralty, is nearly com- and the light therein will be first exhibited on the evening of Saturday, 1st June /hen the floating light vessel will be taken away.

ıe light will burn at an elevation of sixty-three feet above the level of high water tides, and will appear red in all directions seaward, and white within the line of the ·ater. N. B.—A bell will be rung in foggy weather."

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

THE MERCHANT.

TRANSLATED FROM THE GERMAN OF SCHILLER.

WHERE sails the ship? It leads the Tyrian forth,
For the rich amber of the liberal North.
Be kind, ye seas—winds, lend your gentlest wing,
May, in each creek, sweet wells restoring spring!
To you, ye gods, belongs the merchant! O'er
The waves, his sails the wide world's goods explore;
And, all the while, wherever waft the gales,
The wide world's good sails with him as he sails!

COMMERCE IN THE CHINESE SEAS.

French government have published extracts from despatches of their naval com- rs in the Chinese seas, relative to the commerce of those countries. The report of nmander of the Heroine, concerning the trade of the Dutch with Japan, is curious cumstantial. The Dutch send a vessel of 1,000 tons to Japan each year, one-half ight of which is sugar. Camphor and copper are what they import in return. e Chinese junks generally sail each year from Ningpo to Japan. Last year, sixteen ent, and the Japanese made no objection to the augmentation. The sixteen, ac- g to the French captain, were laden with English woollen, cotton, and silk stuffs. n Belcher, of the Samarang, has been ordered to survey the coast of Japan, and, if e, form some trading arrangement for the English. The captain of the Heroine he sugar *of Cochin to sell there at from* 3½ to 4 piastres the picul; but, as the king *monopoly of trade, and as he gives* exports but in proportion as the imports please *trade is far from certain.*

A QUESTION FOR ACCOUNTANTS.

To the Editor of the Merchants' Magazine:

Sir—For the interests of that cause in which your useful and able Magazine is so laudably engaged, I respectfully ask your attention to the particulars of the following commercial transaction. Four different times, during the preceding year, has it appeared in different Journals of New York; and, although it has produced, on each occasion, numerous replies, yet, strange to say, all have failed in the adjustment required:—

Three months have elapsed since I borrowed $5,000 from John Goodman, of Philadelphia, to commence business in this city. My first transaction was to purchase, for cash, twenty pieces of blue cloth, at $100 each piece. These I put into company with Caleb W——, he supplying but sixteen pieces of similar cloth, as to color, price, and quality, yet with an understanding that the stock should not be increased; that he should share *equally* in the gains or losses during trade; and that I, as manager, should receive a commission of 5 per cent on all sold. My first sale was eight pieces, at $80 each, in consequence of a sudden fall in the price of blue cloth. For these eight pieces, I received cash.

My partner, perceiving this, proposed a dissolution of partnership, with this understanding—that each of us should draw our part of the cloth remaining unsold. To this proposal, I consented.

At this period, I received an order from John Goodman, requesting that I would send to him a quantity of *linen*, the cost, charges, and commission of which, (commission at 2½ per cent,) would amount to *two* thousand dollars; and with strict instructions that the charges should be neither more nor less than $20. With these commands I complied, having purchased the linen for cash in the market.

Now, sir, my chief object in laying these *simple* transactions before you, is to say that, although I have *learned* (as it is named) book-keeping from a person in this city, who lays strong claims to a knowledge of this useful branch, both in theory and practice, nevertheless, I have not been able *to close* my accounts thus far, even with *his* assistance. I am therefore compelled to seek, through the medium of your publication, the aid of some one of your numerous mercantile readers; amongst whom, to my knowledge, are many public accountants, and even *teachers* of the system of book-keeping. I conclude by saying that, whether by place, or pecuniary reward, he who *closes* my books on this occasion, shall be fairly compensated. Your reception and preservation of such answers as may be presented, will greatly oblige Your very obedient servant,

J. W. WRIGHT

AMERICAN WINE MADE IN OHIO.

The extent to which this business is prosecuted in the valley of the Ohio, particularly in the vicinity of Cincinnati, is, (says the Western Farmer and Gardener,) we apprehend, not generally known. It is carried on chiefly by experienced German vine-dressers from the valley of the Rhine, who are crowning all the hill-tops in the neighborhood of Cincinnati with their vineyards. Mr. Mottier, who has a flourishing vineyard near town, has sold every gallon of his American wine. His crop last year, from about four acres, (now in full bearing,) was 1,000 gallons. He has also two or three acres more coming into bearing. His sales, during the last eight months, exceed 2,500 gallons, including some of his previous crops, at 75 cents to $1 00 per gallon, chiefly at the latter price. He has made and sold, since he commenced business, nine years since, 8,000 gallons. He uses no brandy in the preservation of his wine, which is thus the pure juice of the grape. *There are now* about three hundred acres in Hamilton county devoted to vineyards, of *which something like* eighty or ninety are owned by one person. The vineyards at Vevay, *Indiana, below* Cincinnati, have long been noted.

A PLETHORA IN COMMERCIAL PURSUITS.

Commercial pursuits are attractive to the ambitious. They offer the hope of wealth, influence, ease, and a high social standing. Consequently, thousands of young men, who ought to remain in the country, and cultivate the ground, enter the cities every year, to engage in trade. There is an unnecessary multiplication of those who come between the producer and the consumer, adding nothing to the value of the commodity. It is not too much to say that a quarter of those now engaged in commerce, in our cities, could do the work which all do. Consequently, the consumer is obliged to support three-quarters of them, who are thus leading an unproductive, if not useless life. A large proportion of those in all kinds of commercial business, are sitting idle behind their counters a great part of the day. Where they attend to fifty customers, they might as easily attend to two hundred. But, as they must be supported, it is necessary for them, somehow or other, to get as much profit out of their fifty customers as they would otherwise do out of more. Hence all the tricks of trade, the thousand deceptions practised upon the ignorance of the purchaser, the arts of puffing, the various devices to attract buyers; which, when not absolutely dishonest, are at least unworthy and degrading. Is it in the order of nature that hundreds of young men, in the prime of life and strength, should stand behind the counter, doing woman's work? Poor women, who depend on their labor, are obliged to toil half the night at the needle, for a miserable compensation, because the situations which they ought to fill, in all kinds of retail business, are taken from them by men who should be ploughing the fields.

CHARLESTON CHAMBER OF COMMERCE.

We are indebted to the politeness of a correspondent at Charleston, South Carolina, for an authentic copy of "Rules for the government of the Charleston Chamber of Commerce, together with the Tariff of Commissions, and other Regulations adopted by the Chamber, in May, 1844." The object of the Charleston Chamber of Commerce, as set forth in the pamphlet before us, is "to foster and promote an honest, active, and enterprising commerce; to watch over and protect the interests of the trading community of Charleston; to agree upon commercial forms and regulations; to decide upon and determine all matters of dispute, and difference of opinion, which may be submitted to its arbitration, promptly, and upon the most fair and equitable principles; to institute a uniform tariff of commissions and charges upon bills of exchange, and to assemble a general meeting of the merchants and traders of the city of Charleston, on all emergencies wherein their rights or interests may be affected." We have transferred to the department of this Magazine, entitled "Commercial Regulations," the tariff of commissions and charges, and other regulations adopted by the members of the Chamber of Commerce in Charleston, now in force, and forming the commercial usage of that city.

FRENCH SAVINGS BANKS.

At a recent sitting of the Academy of Sciences, M. C. Dupin read a statistical paper on the Savings Banks of Paris, and of different cities and towns of France, showing the constantly increasing amount of the deposits, and arguing against the fears entertained by some persons in regard to the difficulties which a sudden demand for repayment would present. He dwelt upon the just confidence which the people had in these institutions, and on the amount of good which they were calculated to produce among those who were sufficiently provident and self-dependent thus to preserve the surplus of their earnings. *According to M. Dupin, the deposits in the Savings Banks of Paris, in January, 1843, exceeded a hundred millions of francs.*

THE BENEVOLENT EAST INDIA MERCHANT.

Edward Colston, at the age of forty years, became a very eminent East India merchant, prior to the incorporation of the East India Company, and had forty sail of ships of his own, with immense riches flowing in upon him. He still remained uniform in his charitable disposition, distributing many thousand pounds to various charities in and about London, besides private gifts in many parts of the kingdom. In the year 1708, he instituted a very magnificent school in St. Augustine's-back, in Bristol, which cost him £11,000 in the building, and endowed the same with between £1,700 and £1,800 per annum, forever. He likewise gave £10 for apprenticing every boy, and for twelve years after his death £10 to put them into business. It has been frequently reported that his private charities far exceeded those in public. "We have heard," says the Bristol (Eng.) Journal, "that one of his ships trading to the East Indies had been missing upwards of three years, and was supposed to be destroyed at sea, but at length she arrived, richly laden. When his principal clerk brought him the report of her arrival, and of the riches on board, he said, as she was totally given up for lost, he would by no means claim any right to her; therefore he ordered the ship and merchandise to be sold, and the produce thereof to be applied towards the relief of the needy, which directions were immediately carried into execution. Another singular instance of his tender consciousness for charity was at the age of forty, when he entertained some thoughts of changing his condition. He paid his addresses to a lady, but being very timorous lest he should be hindered in his pious and charitable designs, he was determined to make a Christian trial of her temper and disposition, and therefore one morning filled his pockets with gold and silver, in order that, if any object presented itself in the course of their tour over London bridge, he might satisfy his intentions. While they were walking near St. Magnus church, a woman in extreme misery, with twins in her lap, sat begging; and, as he and his intended lady were arm-in-arm, he beheld the wretched object, put his hand in his pocket, and took out a handful of gold and silver, casting it into the poor woman's lap. The lady, being greatly alarmed at such profuse generosity, colored prodigiously; so that, when they were gone a little further towards the bridge-foot, she turned to him, and said, 'Sir, do you know what you did a few minutes ago?' 'Madam,' replied Mr. Colston, 'I never let my right hand know what my left hand doeth.' He then took his leave of her, and for this reason never married to the day of his death, although he lived to the age of eighty-five."

GENEROSITY AND GRATITUDE OF A CHINESE MERCHANT.

An English merchant of the name of C——, resided in Canton and Macao, where a sudden reverse of fortune reduced him from a state of affluence to the greatest necessity. A Chinese merchant, named Chinqua, to whom he had formerly rendered service, gratefully offered him an immediate loan of ten thousand dollars, which the gentleman accepted, and gave his bond for the amount. This, the Chinese immediately threw into the fire, saying, "When you, my friend, first come to China, I was a poor man—you took me by the hand; and, assisting my honest endeavors, made me rich. Our destiny is now reversed—I see you poor, while I am blessed with affluence." The bystanders had snatched the bond from the flames. The gentleman, sensibly affected by such generosity, pressed his friend to take the security, which he did, and then effectually destroyed it. The disciple of Confucius, beholding the increased distress it occasioned, said he would accept of his watch, or any little valuable, as a memorial of their friendship. The gentleman immediately presented his watch; and Chinqua, in return, gave him an old iron seal, *saying,* "Take this seal—it is one I have long used, and possesses no intrinsic value; *but, as you are going* to India, to look after your outstanding concerns, should fortune *further persecute you,* draw upon me for any sum of money you may need, sign it with your *own hand, and seal* it with this signet, and I will pay the money."

A LIVERPOOL MERCHANT.

It is stated in the London Chronicle that, in 1836, the transactions of Mr. Brown's house amounted to 10,000,000*l.* In 1837, the American banks, all over the Union, went down one after another, and many together, almost with a universal crash. They fell, and their fall involved the Messrs. Brown. The latter were not crushed, but they were bruised. American commerce was at that time a towering pile in course of erection—bank credit was the scaffolding. It fell; and the Browns were not far from being smothered in the rubbish. Had they possessed less than the strength of giants, they could not have extricated themselves; and, giants as they were, they would have struggled in vain, had not a powerful hand assisted them. The British government saw, and looked with apprehension as it saw, the struggles of this gigantic establishment. From Inverness to Penzance, there was not a single town but would have felt its fall. In Sheffield and Birmingham, and the towns surrounding them, and in Manchester, Leeds, and all the great factory communities, a large number of the merchants and employers, and, as a matter of course, every man and woman employed, were more or less involved in the fate of this establishment. The government of that day saw the imminent peril, and so did the directors of the bank of England. The latter met, and passed a resolution to give assistance to Mr. Brown to the extent of two millions. The exact sum which he was authorized to draw—a loan of money, to an individual, unparalleled in the history of the world—was 1,959,000*l.* Of this loan, he took advantage to the extent of between eight and nine hundred thousand pounds, which he has since repaid, besides clearing off all other embarrassments. What Mr. Brown's personal fortune may be now, it is not necessary to inquire. It is ample—probably not less than the sum which he was authorized to borrow from the bank of England in 1837; probably more.

EXCHANGE ON ENGLAND.

The following calculation, prepared by a gentleman of New York, skilled in matters of this kind, will, we believe, (says the New York Price Current,) be found accurate and interesting to many of our readers. The table shows at a glance at what rates of exchange shipments of sovereigns are profitable. It will be seen that sterling exchange is now below the specie point, even could sovereigns be bought at $4 83. Shipments of silver to France are made when it is unprofitable to ship to England, as the French assayists have the art of extracting a minute portion of gold from silver coin, which more than pays the cost of extraction.

5,000 sovereigns, purchased at $4 85,		$24,250 00
Charges packing, freight to Boston, &c.,		4 50
Marine insurance, at ½ per cent,		121 25
Policy,		1 25
Total cost in New York,		$24,377 00
Value of the same in London,		£5,000 0 0
Less charges in London, freight at ¼ per cent,	£18 15 0	
Primage, 5 per cent,	0 18 9	
Landing charges, postages, &c.,	1 16 3	
Commission, ½ per cent,	25 0 0	
		46 10 0
Nett proceeds, cash,		£4,953 10 0
Add interest of 63 days, at 4 per cent,		34 13 5
Against which shipment may be drawn		£4,988 3 5

at 60 days' sight; which, to produce the above amount of $24,377, laid out for sovereigns, would establish the exchange *on London* at $109 95 per cent.

By the same calculation, we find that sovereigns purchased at $4 83, $4 84, $4 85, *$4 86, $4 87, $4 88, make an exchange of* $109 50, $109 73, $109 95, $110 18, *$110 41, and $110 63.*

THE FRENCH IMPORTER'S READY CALCULATOR.

Mr. W. Ward, of New York, who has been for some time book-keeper to an importing house, and "having, with other of his fellow-laborers, felt the importance of such a labor-saving work, proposes, for his own and their convenience, as soon as a sufficient number of subscribers can be obtained to insure him against any loss, to publish a book" with the above title. It is to combine much greater correctness with much greater facility in calculating the cost of French goods, than any method now in use. The plan of this work is thus set forth in the prospectus, and will, we think, commend it to all whose occupation renders such information necessary or desirable:—

1st. A table showing what per cent to add to the original cost of goods in France, to determine their cost in the United States; adapted to and including all the various rates of bounty, duty, discount, &c., and so arranged that it may be applied to every invoice of French goods that comes to this market.

2d. Exhibits, by an actual invoice, an entirely new method of arriving at the cost per cent of importing, by which can be determined the exact cost per cent of importing any case of goods, whether it contain cotton, silk, or woollen materials.

3d. Reduces francs to dollars and cents, with per cents adapted to the different rates of duty, bounty, &c., added in adjoining columns, on a principle similar to the advance-book in common use. Intended for articles sold by the dozen or pound.

4th. Price per metre, in francs, reduced to price per yard, in dollars and cents, with per cents added in adjoining columns.

5th. Francs per aune reduced to dollars per yard, same as No. 4.

6th. Metres from 1 to 100, reduced to yards.

7th. Aunes " " "

COTTON MANUFACTURING IN CINCINNATI.

The Cincinnati (Ohio) Gazette says:—"The great advantages of Cincinnati, for the manufacture of cotton goods, has long been apparent to all who have reflected upon the subject. All our manufactures are flourishing in a high degree; and we have concentrated here a large number of workmen, in a great variety of branches, who are not excelled in skill and ingenuity by the same number of artisans in any part of the world. Our city is already a great workshop, and has long since passed the point at which any doubt could rest upon the question whether our facilities for mechanical enterprise were such as to command success. This is no longer matter of experiment. Our position is ascertained to be unrivalled, and we are now going ahead.

The last addition to our mechanical power is a manufactory for the fabrication of cotton goods, which is in contemplation, and, we are informed, will go into operation immediately, under the auspices of three of our most enterprising and respectable citizens.

ZINC MINES IN NEW HAMPSHIRE.

At a recent railroad convention at Hanover, N. H., Mr. Baker, (or Becker,) now of Warren, addressed the meeting. He is a German by birth, and had not been in this country but about nine months. He remarked that his time had been principally spent in exploring the mineral ores of many different states—that he had found none so rich and so inviting as the zinc mines of Warren, and the iron mines of Pierpont—that in those towns he intended forthwith to invest a large capital, for the purpose of manufacturing zinc and sheet iron—that he intended to erect such works as would produce five tons of *zinc daily—that there* was now none of this worked in the United States, what was used *being imported—that* he intended to manufacture very extensively a kind of sheet iron *which was now imported* from Russia, which now costs fourteen cents per pound.

THE BOOK TRADE.

1.—*Republication of the London, Edinburgh, Foreign, and Westminster Quarterly Reviews, and Blackwood's Magazine.* New York: Leonard Scott & Co.

We have been in the receipt of these excellent and time-honored periodicals ever since their reprint was commenced in this country, and we regard the series of volumes which they comprise as among the most valuable that adorn our library. The London Quarterly, under the editorial supervision of Lockhart, is conducted with signal ability; and, notwithstanding its high tory principles, is favorably received, and extensively circulated in this country. The Edinburgh Review is, however, much more popular with Americans, its politics being less objectionable; while, for the very highest order of literary talent, it has not its superior in the world. In proof of this, we need only name Jeffries, Napier, Macaulay, Brougham, and M'Intosh, as its leading contributors. The Foreign Quarterly claims patronage, in common with the other Reviews, as a valuable literary work; but its principal feature, and that which perhaps renders it more useful than any of the others, is the knowledge it affords of the current literature of continental Europe. As the title indicates, it reviews foreign works, presenting the spirit of the productions of most of the leading cotemporary foreign writers in our own vernacular—a consideration of great importance to those who are not linguists, and a matter of no little convenience to those who are. The Westminster Review is liberal in its politics—by some deemed *ultra*. It maintains an unrelenting crusade against the alliance of church and state; and, in many other respects, advocates political doctrines quite as democratic as would be generally relished in this country. Blackwood's Magazine, the last of the series under review, is issued monthly. It is, we believe, the oldest work of the kind now published; and its popularity increases with its age. The sale of the original work is enormous; and that of the reprint, we are informed, is scarcely inferior. Professor Wilson, better known as Christopher North, is the editor; and among its regular contributors, past and present, are Dr. Warren, author of "Ten Thousand a Year," "The Diary of a Physician," &c., &c.; Jeffries, Lockhart, James, Lytton Bulwer, and Sydney Smith; and, apart from its tory politics, we commend it as the best literary Magazine extant. The price of all these works, together, is only $10 a year—a sum about one-fourth the prices of the foreign editions.

2.—*Library of American Biography.* Conducted by JARED SPARKS. Second series. Vol. 2. 12mo., pp. 404. Boston: Charles C. Little and James Brown.

The first volume of the second series of Sparks's American Biography, published since the commencement of the present year, was noticed in the May number of this Magazine. That volume embraced the lives of De Salle and Patrick Henry. The volume before us contains the life of James Otis, by Francis Bowen; and James Oglethorpe, the founder of Georgia, by William B. O. Peabody, occupying about two hundred pages each. Mr. Bowen, the author of the first, is the editor of the North American Review; and Mr. Peabody, the author of the latter, is well known as one of our most accomplished English prose writers. The men whose biographies are recorded in this volume, are identified either with the early or revolutionary history of America; and the influence they have exerted upon its character and destiny, by lives of patriotism, and elevated public and private virtue, render them worthy subjects of a judiciously selected series of American biography. Their biographers have performed the task assigned them in a manner alike creditable to themselves, and to the literature of the country. The first series, which has become the literary property of Harper & Brothers, has been introduced into the ten thousand *school libraries of the state of* New York; and we earnestly commend these *volumes to the attention of the superintendents* of public schools; believing, as we do *that a more valuable addition to the* school district libraries cannot well be made.

3.—*A Popular View of the Doctrines of Charles Fourier.* By PARK GODWIN. New York: J. S. Redfield.

Mr. Godwin, and the advocates generally of the Social Science of Fourier, rest its claims upon precisely the same grounds on which Herschel rests the science of astronomy. They maintain that his social principles are entitled to rank as a science, being capable of that vigorous demonstration which only wilful prejudice rejects—as the Italian philosophers denied the existence of Galilio's telescope, although he gave them the opportunity of looking through it, or as the chemists of Europe scouted the system of Lavoisier, for more than fifty years, although they might have satisfied themselves of its truth, by a few simple experiments. The object of this volume is to furnish the public with a comprehensive view of all the doctrines of Charles Fourier, who professes to have discovered the science of Social Organization. This Mr. Godwin has, we think, accomplished, with a precision and clearness that must render his work eminently useful, as explanatory of one of the noblest constructive reforms of our time. The high moral and intellectual qualities of such men as Channing, Ripley, Dwight, Dana, Godwin, and other disciples of Fourier, it seems to us, should secure for the cause they have so ably espoused, and which is so full of promise to the race, at least a candid and honest investigation. Fourierism, if we comprehend it, as explained by Mr. Godwin, must, in its full realization, embrace all reforms, and produce a harmony and order in the moral and social world, corresponding with that which pervades the universe of worlds, that display themselves to the visual eye, as it gazes in wonder on the heavens. We have read the treatise with deep interest, and earnestly commend it to all who deplore the monstrous social evils that now exist in the present state of society, or who hopefully await the complete fulfilment of the angelic annunciation, made more than eighteen hundred years ago—"Glory to God in the highest; peace on earth, and good will among men."

4.—*Chemistry, as Exemplifying the Wisdom and Beneficence of God.* By GEORGE FERONES, Ph. D. Chemical Lecturer in the Middlesex Hoepital Medical School. 12mo., pp. 157. New York: Wiley & Putnam.

This is a prize essay, for which the author received one hundred guineas, for the best illustration of the wisdom and beneficence of the Supreme Being, as displayed in the science of chemistry. The subject is discussed in the following order:—The chemical history of the earth and the atmosphere; the peculiarities which characterise organic substances, generally; the composition and substances of plants; the relations existing between plants and animals. The works of nature, as opened up to the mind of the scientific inquirer after truth, are a revelation of God, well calculated to confirm the faith of every unsophisticated mind; and we rejoice in the publication of every work which, like the present, bears the impress of profound philosophical investigation.

5.—*The Log Cabin; or, The World Before You.* By the author of "Three Experiments of Living," "Old Painters," and "Huguenots in France and America." Philadelphia: George S. Appleton.

This handsome little volume has for its object "the welfare of young persons going forth into the world, to lay the foundation of their prosperity in life." The foundation of all that deserves to be called prosperity is here pointed out by the accomplished author with distinctness, and the principles of integrity are inculcated in a simple and touching narrative, illustrated with strong and often humorous traits of character. The author's singularly felicitous power of narrative will stamp on the mind the incidents, and with them the doctrine.

6.—*The Republic.*

In noticing this new daily Journal in our last number, we alluded to Mr. Ryan as the *principal editor.* That gentleman has since returned to England, and the editorial conduct of the paper has passed into the hands of Mr. Kettell, a gentleman well and favorably known as an able commercial writer.

7.—*Ancient History; containing the History of the Egyptians, Assyrians, Chaldeans, Medes, Lydians, Carthagenians, Persians, Macedonians, &c.* From ROLLIN, and other authentic sources, both Ancient and Modern. In four volumes. New York: Robert Carter.

The title-page states that this history is compiled from Rollin, and other authentic sources; but we are informed, in the preface, that that portion of the work derived from Rollin is entirely re-written. He was not sufficiently cautious on some points, and much additional information has been accumulated since its time, of which judicious use appears to be made in these volumes. Mr. Carter has given us a faithful reprint of the volumes, as prepared by the London Tract Society, which is a pretty good recommendation in behalf of the work. It is handsomely printed, on a clear and distinct type, and white, firm paper; and, altogether, forms a very beautiful series of volumes. The four volumes are sold at the very low price of $1 50.

8.—*The Picturesque Tourist; being a Guide through the Northern and Eastern States, and Canada: Giving an accurate description of Cities and Villages, Celebrated Places of Resort, &c. With Maps and Illustrations.* Edited by O. L. HOLLEY. New York: J. Disturnell.

A recent work of this description has long been a desideratum. Those heretofore in use are meagre and unsatisfactory, and indeed almost obsolete; having been prepared years ago, and still sold, with a new title-page, without exhibiting the progress of the country they describe. Not so with this. It is full, recent, and altogether forms one of the best works of its class that has yet issued from the press. The general object of the book, (of furnishing a convenient and faithful guide for strangers, whether travelling on business, or for pleasure or health, through the northern and eastern sections of the United States, and the Canadas,) has been accomplished in a manner that must render it a decidedly popular and useful hand-book.

9.—*Commerce of the Prairies; or, The Journal of a Santa Fe Trader, during Eight Expeditions across the Great Western Prairies, and a Residence of nearly Nine Years in Northern Mexico. Illustrated with Maps and Engravings.* By JOSIAH GREGG. 2 vols. 12mo., pp. 320 and 318. New York: Henry G. Langley.

As we propose, in a future number of our Journal, to make these highly attractive volumes the basis of an extended review, we at this time only announce their appearance, and bespeak for them what we feel quite sure they merit—an extensive popularity.

10.—*The Poetical Works of Winthrop Mackworth Praed. Now first collected.* By RUFUS W. GRISWOLD. 12mo., pp. 287. New York: Henry G. Langley.

"Lillian," the leading poem in the present volume, is one of the most purely imaginative poems in the English language. Praed delighted in themes of this sort; and the "Red Fisherman," the "Bridal of Belmont," and some of his other pieces, show the exceeding cleverness with which he reared upon them his fanciful and beautiful creations. Several of the lively and graceful compositions in this volume have been widely known through the periodicals of England and America; but this is the first collected publication of his poems that has been made; and it appears in the characteristicly elegant style of all Mr. Langley's publications.

11.—*Popular Hand-Books.* 1. *Hand-Book of Dreams.* 2. *Hand-Book of Domestic Cookery.* 3. *Gentleman's Letter-Writer.* 4. *Ladies' Letter-Writer.* 5. *Hand-Book of the Language of Flowers.* 6. *Hand-Book of Manners.* New York: James Langley.

Here are half a dozen little books, elegantly bound in muslin, with gilt edges, and ornamental stamps, replete with information, in a condensed form, relating to the various subjects named in the titles above quoted.

12.—*Life of Goethe. From his Autobiographical Papers and the Contributions of his Contemporaries. By HENRY C. BROWNING.* 2 vols. 12mo., pp. 285. New York: *James Mowatt & Co.*

13.—*Hydropathy; or, the Water-Cure—its Principles, Modes of Treatment, &c. Illustrated with many cases.* Compiled chiefly from eminent English authors on the subject. By JOEL SHEW, M. D. New York: Wiley & Putnam.

We are not prepared to go the whole length with the large and increasing class of physicians and laymen who have embraced the principles and practice of the "water cure" for all the ills of humanity; but many of its prescriptions experience has shown to be excellent; and we have no doubt that the attention paid to the subject has led to the discovery, in water alone, of safe and simple remedies for many diseases. The little volume before us clearly explains the principles and modes of treatment for every variety of pains and aches, and is worthy of the attention of all classes of society.

14.—*The Two Half Dollars, and other Tales.* A Gift for Children. With thirteen engravings. Boston: Tappen & Dennet.

The stories and rhymes which make up this collection of the papers of Mrs. A. E. Gould, are published as a slight memorial of her, while they are intended to serve the purpose to which the amiable author would have devoted them—the gratification of children. The cuts add little to its value, as they are poorly done. The book is, however neatly printed.

15.—*Daily Manna for Christian Pilgrims.* By BARON STOWE. Boston: Gould, Kendall & Lincoln.

A beautiful little volume, consisting of texts from Scripture, with brief and pertinent prose and poetical illustrations for every day in the year.

16.—*The Course of Time.* By ROBERT POLLOK. With a Memoir of the author, and an ample Index, compiled expressly for this volume.

17.—*The Complaint; or, Night Thoughts.* By EDWARD YOUNG, D. D. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

Very handsome diamond editions of popular and well known poems, elegantly bound in gold leaf.

WORKS IN PAMPHLET FORM, RECEIVED SINCE OUR LAST.

1.—*Working a Passage; or, Life in a Liner.* (Published for the benefit of Young Travellers.) By B. C. F. 18mo., pp. 108. New York: John Allen.

2.—*The Triumphs of Time.* By the author of "Two Old Men's Tales." No. 37 Library of Select Novels. New York: Harper & Brothers.

3.—*Pencillings by the Way. Written during Nine Years of Residence and Travel in France, Italy, Greece, Asia Minor, Turkey, and England.* By N. P. WILLIS. First complete edition. New York: Morris & Willis.

4.—*The Spoon; with upwards of One Hundred Illustrations, Primitive, Egyptian, Roman, Mediæval, and Modern.* By HAB'K O. WESTMAN. New York: Harper & Brothers.

5.—*The Smugglers of the Swedish Court; or, The Rose of Thistle Island. A Romance.* By Miss EMILIE CARLEN. Translated from the original Swedish. By G. C. HEBBE, LL. D., and H. C. DEMING, Esq. 8vo., pp. 162. New York: J. Winchester.

6.—*Rose D'Albret; or, Troublous Times. A Romance.* By G. P. R. JAMES, Esq. 8vo., pp. 152. New York: Harper & Brothers.

7.—*Amy Herbert.* By a Lady. Edited by the Rev. W. SEWELL, B. D., Fellow of Exeter College, Oxford. 8vo., pp. 133. New York: Harper & Brothers.

8.—*Excursion through the Slave States, from Washington on the Potomac to the Frontier of Mexico. With Sketches of Popular Manners, and Geological Notices.* By G. W. FEATHERSTONHAUGH, F. R. S., F. G. S. 8vo., pp. 168. New York: Harper & Brothers.

9.—*Corinne; or, Italy.* By MADAME DE STAEL—Holstein. Translated for the Library of Standard Novels. American edition, with numerous corrections. Two volumes in one. 8vo., pp. 170. New York: Henry G. Langley.

10.—*Alida; or, Town and Country.* By the author of "Allen Prescott," (Mrs. SEDGWICK.) *8vo., pp.* 176. New York: Henry G. Langley.

THE

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HUNT'S

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.

SEPTEMBER, 1844.

ART. I.—TRADE AND COMMERCE OF SWEDEN.

NATURAL RESOURCES OF SWEDEN—AGRICULTURE—GOVERNMENT AND TREATIES WITH FOREIGN STATES—COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS AND TARIFFS—MONEY, WEIGHTS AND MEASURES—GOTHA CANAL—NAVIGATION AND TRADE OF SWEDEN—SHIPPING—EXPORTS AND IMPORTS—TRADE OF STOCKHOLM—TRADE OF GOTHENBURG, ETC.*

THE kingdoms of Sweden and Norway comprise a large peninsula, united to the continent by the isthmus which separates the Gulf of Bothnia from the White sea.

The aspect of the sea-coast of Sweden, is generally low, and greatly broken up by bays, harbors, lakes and torrents. Of the numerous rivers, the Tornea and the Angerman are the principal. In the northwestern parts, bordering on Norway, the country is rugged, hilly and even mountainous. The soil, where the surface is not occupied by rocks, is chiefly light and sandy. Rich alluvial tracks occur, and mosses and marshes are extensive. The soil and climate are ungenial to agriculture; some fertile tracks are met with, south of 61° north, which produce rye, barley, a little wheat, potatoes, carrots, turnips, beet-root and various vegetables; tobacco, flax, hemp, some hops, and some fruit, such as apples, pears, plums, currants and gooseberries. To the north of 61°, a rugged, mossy and dreary country, generally prevails to the Arctic sea. The forests of Sweden produce excellent timber of the fir tribes, and good tough ash. Beeches grow as far north as 56° 30′, beyond which, as far as nearly to latitude 70° north, firs and birches are the common forest-trees. South of 63° ash-trees thrive, and lindens, walnuts, maple, oak, elm, &c., all grow south of latitude 61°. In the southern parts, there is great scarcity of wood and fuel; and the poor inhabitants of many districts are said to

* For the materials of this article, we are indebted mainly to documents, presented to both Houses of Parliament, *by command of* her majesty, 1st of February, 1844, by John Macgregor; *politely furnished us by his* excellency, Edward Everett, our minister to England.—[ED. MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.]

remain in bed, for warmth, during the greater part of the cold days of winter, merely from want of fuel. In the northern and wooded, though coldest parts of Sweden, people are found lodged comparatively in comfort, and in affluent circumstances. The horses are lively, strong, and although not generally large, much esteemed. The pastures are good in summer, and horned cattle, sheep and hogs, are bred with care; the former are small in size. The reindeer, particularly in the north, are useful domestic animals. Bees thrive, although the climate is so very cold. Various medicinal plants are abundant. The coasts, rivers and lakes, swarm with fish. The lobsters and oysters are remarkably fine. Game is plentiful and excellent.

The forests, though for a long time recklessly destroyed, yield timber for exportation; and the streams afford numerous sites for saw-mills, and the means of conveying the timber and deals to shipping ports. Great care is now taken to preserve the woods from wanton destruction, and planting of oak, pine and spruce-firs, has, for some time, been rather extensively attended to.

The mineral riches of Sweden are, however, the most important, especially the iron mines, which produce the best iron and steel, in great abundance; gold and silver, copper, lead, alum, coal, saltpetre, porphyry, marble, alabaster, slate, asbestus, loadstones, talc, amethysts, &c., are also found in this kingdom.

The principal seaports are Stockholm, Nykoping, Nordkoping, Kalmar, Carlscrona, Malmoe, Helsinburg, Halmstadt, Gottenburg, Gefle, Hudikswald, Hernosand, Umea, Pitea, Lulea and Tornea; along the coasts there are several islands, the largest are Oeland, Gothland and Wisby.

Agriculture of Sweden.—It has been estimated, that seven-eighths of the population of Sweden are engaged in agriculture. This statement must be taken in a very modified interpretation: for, though nearly that number may be occupied in agriculture, the same individuals are, the most of them, also, for a greater part of their time, engaged in other pursuits, such as wood-cutting, fishing, common domestic fabrics, &c.

The whole surface of Sweden is computed at 171,015 English square miles, or 109,449,600 acres, or nearly one-half more than the whole surface of Great Britain and Ireland. Of the whole area of Sweden, about one-half lies north of 63° north latitude, beyond which, little grain, except barley, will ripen. Of the whole surface, 3,490 square miles or 2,233,600 acres, or about 1 in 50, is arable, and about twice that extent is under meadows and pastures. All the vast remaining regions are occupied by woods, bare rocks, marshes, bogs and lakes.

Industry has done much, in a country where the climate and the soil are both so unfavorable to agriculture; and if the extent of cultivated land is small, the population is also so limited that there are two-thirds of an acre of arable land for each individual inhabitant. This extent under cultivation, with the animal food, butter and cheese of the meadows and pastures, and the support derived from the fisheries, have rendered it unnecessary to import much corn, except after the bad harvests, which are often occasioned by frosts. Potatoes and barley are generally raised. Some hemp, and a good deal of excellent flax are raised, and used in making domestic linens. A little tobacco is grown; and on the low grounds bordering the Lake Wener, and on other places where alluvial or tolerably fertile spots of soil are found, agriculture is in a creditable state.

STATEMENT

Of the average quantity of Grain, and other Produce, raised in Sweden, according to official returns, for the five years from 1833 *to* 1837, *both inclusive.*

Description.	Quantity annually sown.	Quantity annually produced, the seed being deducted.
Wheat,.....Swedish bbls.	37,476	244,709
Rye,.....	406,548	2,278,366
Barley,.....	401,071	1,800,712
Oats,.....	444,434	1,532,046
Barley and oats, mixed,.....	192,350	774,677
Peas,.....	65,861	299,109
Potatoes,.....	614,396	4,113,442

NOTE.—Two Swedish barrels, or tunnar, may be considered in round numbers to be equal to an imperial quarter, as 100 English quarters are equal to 198 65-100ths Swedish barrels, or tunnar.

The cultivated surface of Sweden is divided into 65,219½ estates, or hemmans of land; and although these originally belonged to single proprietors, they are now generally subdivided among about 150,000 individuals, exclusive of the hemmans belonging to the church, colleges, towns, hospitals, the crown, the army, sailors, &c. The value of all the hemmans was estimated, in 1836, at 396,193,366 r. d. Highest annual value of the hemman, 9,034 r. d.; lowest annual value, 1,807 r. d.; average annual value, 4,186 r. d.

GOVERNMENT OF SWEDEN, AND TREATIES WITH FOREIGN STATES.—The Swedish monarchy, comprising Sweden and Norway, includes a greater extent of territory than any other European sovereignty, except Russia.

In 1808, Sweden lost Finland, which was conquered by Russia; but, in 1814, this loss was repaired by the acquisition of Norway.

The three general divisions of Sweden, viz.: Gothland, Sweden Proper and Norrland, are now divided into twenty-five lans or governments; and Norway, formerly divided into the four dioceses or governments, of Aggerhuus, Christiansand, Bergen and Drontheim, is now formed into seventeen bailiwicks or divisions.*

Sweden and Norway have different constitutions, though under the same king. The monarchical power is hereditary—females are excluded. The king appoints to all employments, and grants pardons. He cannot make new laws, interpret old ones, raise taxes or declare war, without the consent of the states, which he alone has the power of convoking. The liberty of the press is guarantied. The senate or court of peers, is composed of twenty-two members, and twelve councils of the crown form a council of state.

The legislative body, styled the Diet or States-general, consists of four orders: 1st, nobles, in which order each noble family has its representative; 2d, clergy, represented by the bishops and also by pastors chosen in each chapter; 3d, burgesses, who are chosen by the principal towns; and 4th, peasantry, chosen by themselves in their assemblies. Each deputy must be of one of these orders, profess the Protestant religion and be twenty-five years of age. Each order deliberates and votes separately. The states, which assemble every five years, except in extraordinary

* See Royal Almanack of Sweden and Norway, (Sveriges och Norriges Calender, 1829 and 1830.) M. Hagelston thus distributes the bailiwicks among the three geographical *regions:—10 to Sonderfields, 5 to* Nordenfields, and 2 to Norrlanden.

cases, have the right of legislation and taxation, and the superintendence of the finances; but the king has an unconditional *veto.*

Council of State.—This council is composed of the minister of justice, the minister of foreign affairs and colonies, six counsellors of state, and the chancellor; which, with the chancellor of justice, secretaries at war, of the interior, of the finances and commerce, of public worship, and the heads of the army and marine, form the ministry.

Swedish Treaties with Foreign States.—Sweden has treaties of reciprocity with Great Britain; with Russia, giving special privileges to Finnish vessels, and of perfect reciprocity in regard to all other Russian vessels; with Prussia, Denmark, Hanse Towns, United States of America, Turkey, Belgium, Greece, States of the Church, Sardinia, &c.

British Treaties with Sweden.—Several treaties of peace, amity and commerce, have been negotiated between Great Britain and Sweden; and the latter has also signed a treaty, similar to those which Great Britain has with France and most of the states of Europe and America, for the suppression of the slave trade.

Commercial Legislation and Customs Tariffs, &c., of Sweden. —From an early period, the national councils of Sweden have attempted to encourage domestic manufactures, by prohibitions and severe restrictions; and they have persevered in this fallacious legislation, with little deviation and without success, up to the present day: for the manufacturing population are generally poor, and manufactures have not thriven. No country could have been more unnaturally oppressed by restriction, than one like Sweden—cold, generally barren, and having little else to export than the produce of her mines, woods and fisheries. Her prohibitive system has been remarkably oppressive to the peasantry and laboring classes. In addition to prohibitions and high import, export and transit duties, convoy duties, of 5, 10 and 15 per cent, are charged on the amount of all other duties, or valuations of duties; *town dues*, of 2½ per cent by privileged, and 40 per cent by non-privileged vessels, are charged; and tonnage duties, of 12 skellings per cent on Swedish, and 36 on non-privileged vessels. Sails, cordage, gunpowder, refined sugar, iron, steel, the greater number of articles of cottons, woollens, earthenware, &c., are prohibited. The revenue is derived from a poll-tax, of about 1*s.* 3*d.* sterling for each inhabitant, from duties on imports and exports, (the former, though oppressive, yet comparatively unproductive,) mines, excise on spirits, monopolies and the produce of the royal demesnes; the whole revenue being less than one million and one-fourth sterling.

The Swedes, or their government, do not seem to comprehend that their true course would have been to purchase, in the cheapest markets, all manufactured goods, and those articles which they have not cheap at home, in exchange for their iron, deals, timber, lobsters, fish and fish-oils. For them to attempt forcing either the cultivation of wheat in an uncongenial climate, or to raise up manufactures by the aid of prohibitions of, and high duties on, foreign commodities, is to persevere in a course the most pernicious to their real interests. The tariff now in force, promulgated the 23d of October, 1841, will be found as restrictive as, and more complex than, that of Russia. Norway, by a recent law of the Storthing, has also imposed enormous duties on foreign manufactures.

SWEDISH TARIFF OF DUTIES OF CUSTOMS ON IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.*—The rates, as well as the official values, are in Swedish bank money, in the reduction of which into sterling, an average exchange of 12 r. d. banco to the pound, has been taken. Besides the duties stated in the tariff, there are the following imposts levied on foreign trade, viz.: Convoy Duty, Town Dues, Tonnage Dues. The Convoy Duty is paid only on imports, at the rate of 1 per cent on the amount of duties of customs. The Town Dues are charged at a per centage on the official value stated in the tariff, and for Stockholm consist of 2½ per cent on imports, with an increase thereon of 40 per cent by unfree ships, namely, such as are not by treaty on the same footing as Swedes; and of 1½ per cent on exports, with an increase thereon of 50 per cent by unfree ships. The Tonnage Dues are levied as follows, inwards as well as outwards, viz.: at 12 sh. banco per last on Swedish ships, equal to 2 1-12*d.* sterling per English ton; and at 36 sh. banco per last on foreign ships, equal to 6 3-12*d.* sterling per English ton, unless the latter are placed by treaty on the same footing as Swedes.

MONEY, WEIGHTS AND MEASURES OF SWEDEN.—The current rixdaler consists of 48 shillings; the shilling, 12 rundstycks. Banco money is also counted in rixdalers, and is of higher value than the former—often 50 per cent. The skeppund victuallic, or commercial weight, is divided into lispunds and lbs.: 1 skep. lb. = 20 lis lb.; 1 lis lb. = 20 lbs. The skeppund metal weight is divided in the same manner, but is equal only to 320 lbs. commercial weight. Of the commercial weight, 100 lbs. are equal to 93 76-100 lbs. avoirdupois English. The ell consists of 2 feet; 1000 feet Swedish, equal to 975 feet English; the oxhufond, or hogshead, contains 1½ ams, or awmes, equal to 90 kans; the am contains 60 kans; the barrel 48 kans; 100 kans are equal to 69 9-100 gallons; the common barrel, in corn measure, contains 32 kappars, equal to 4 157-100 bushels, Winchester measure; the barrel of rye, wheat, barley and oats, is reckoned at 36 kappars; the barrel of malt, at 38 kappars; and of salt and lime, at 34 kappars; 100 lasts Swedish, are equal to 239¾ tons English.

The tariff is arranged according to the relative proportions of the Swedish rates and monies with the English rates and monies; but, in calculating the duties, two important facts must not be overlooked. The first is, that the official values are nearly all far greater than, often more than double, the real values. Consequently, the real per centage duties are in the same proportion greater than the official rates. The second is, that when the values or duties are rated either by the weight, package or measure, the duties are also unequally levied; ordinary and coarse manufactures of cotton, linen and wool, which would be generally used by the peasantry and laboring classes, pay, in consequence, a much higher per centage than the finer woven goods which are used by the more wealthy.

THE GOTHA CANAL.—The inlets, lakes and rivers of Sweden, have always afforded great facilities for the transportation of the produce of her forests and mines. A canal, to avoid the long and tortuous navigation of the sound and the sound dues, was projected, at an early period, by Sweden. The Maeler, *a deep inlet*, enters Sweden, at Stockholm, from the

* *We have in our possession a copy of* this tariff, but its great length compels us to *omit it altogether. It would occupy* about 50 pages of our Magazine.—[ED. MER. MAG.

Baltic, and branches north to Upsala, and west 70 miles amongst a multitude of islands, to within a few miles of the Lake Hielmar. The Arboga canal, opened during the latter end of the last century, is navigable between the Maeler and that lake; and it was then considered that it might be continued from the Hielmar to the Wettern lake, but the project was found impracticable; the distance between the Maeler and the Lake Sodree Barker, near the confines of Dalecarlia and the mining districts, was opened at the same period by means of the Stroemsholm canal and the Lake Freda, and rivers.

The Gotha river, which runs from the Lake Wenern (the largest in Europe, except the Ladoga) into the sea at Gothenburg, though in many parts deep and navigable, was interrupted by falls and islands. These were finally surmounted, after extraordinary difficulties, (the whole of the gigantic works having all been once swept off by the impetuosity of the water,) by the execution of the Trollhœtta canal, in 1800. It is 3 miles long, and has 8 sluices to ascend and descend 112 feet. At one place, it was cut 70 feet deep through the rocks. The whole expense was about £80,000.

The Lake Wenern was afterwards joined by a canal to the Lake Wettern, and finally the canalization of the whole distance to Soderkoping and the Baltic was completed in 1832.

Navigation and Trade of Sweden.—The fisheries, the mines and the forests of this kingdom, were the early sources of Swedish trade. In 1680, Puffendorff, who was then one of the councillors of state to the king of Sweden, says: "Sweden produces more copper and iron than any other kingdom in the world, and the mines are fitted by nature for that purpose, being surrounded by woods and rivers. There is a silver mine in Westmanland. Finland brings forth pitch, and tar, and deal; and Wermanland good store of masts. The native commodities of Sweden are copper, iron, tar, pitch, masts, deals, boards, &c. In lieu of which, Sweden receives from abroad, wine, brandy, salt, spices, cloths, silks and woollen stuffs, fine linen, French manufactures of all sorts, furs, paper and such like; all which, in some years, surpasses in value the commodities exported hence. To recompence this, navigation and commerce has been encouraged of late years among the natives, and several sorts of manufactures are made, whereof those made of copper, iron and brass, would questionless turn to the best account, if these artists were duly encouraged to settle in this kingdom." Oddy, in his work on European Commerce, describes the products and trade of Sweden, previously to the year 1805, as follows:

"The produce of Sweden, generally, for exportation, consists of iron, wood, tar, pitch and a little copper. Its produce, in other articles, is scarcely sufficient for its own consumption. The principal source of the wealth of Sweden is its mines, of which there are a great variety, of gold, silver and copper; but the iron is of all others by far the greatest.

"The progress made in the establishment of iron foundries, in Russia, (which country used to have her iron from Sweden,) has been so rapid, that the mines of Russia are fast rivalling those of Sweden. We find, *by a manuscript* register taken of all the mines, by the government, in *1748, that, in the* latter kingdom, there were no less than 496 foundries, *with 539 large hammers*, 971 smaller ones, for making bar iron, and other *manufactures of iron* which produced, in that year, 304,415 skeppunds,

or 40,588 tons English. The present produce of all the Swedish iron mines, is about 400,000 skeppunds, or about 53,330 English tons; and this increase, notwithstanding the great quantity made in Russia, may be attributed to the superior quality of the Swedish, which is esteemed all over the world; as well as to their making different sized bars, square and flat, which are more easily converted into the general uses for which they are required, than that which is shipped from Russia. Great Britain takes half, or rather more, of the whole quantity which Sweden exports.

"The Swedish government established an office, in 1740, to promote the production of iron, by lending money on the ore, even at so low a rate as 4 per cent. A correct register was then made of the mines, which is still continued. The latest statement of them, is a manuscript account, which the author saw, in the end of the year 1804. Their foundries are now above 500; each foundry has its particular mark stamped on the bars of iron it produces, which is likewise correctly copied into the manuscript; likewise the name of the place where the establishment is situated; the names of the proprietors of the work; the commissioner or agent for the sale of the iron; the assortment each makes, and to what country it is generally shipped; the quantity annually made by each work; the quantity which each work delivers to the government, (which is about 1 per cent on the quantity of the iron produced;) the estimation of the quality of the iron of each work, which is variable; the place and province in which the works are situated; the place from whence the iron is generally shipped; and how many hammers each work has; all which, are regularly and alphabetically described and arranged.

"Each furnace, upon the average, makes but about 80 tons of iron in the year, with 1 large hammer and 2 smaller ones. There are some small works, or little forges and smithies, however, which make only from 10 to 30 tons the year; others, from 100 to 500 tons. But the mine of Dannemvra, which was established in 1527, produces from 13,000 to 20,000 tons annually; it has the richest ore, and its iron is of a superior quality, and preferred amongst the steel manufacturers in England.

"Of the next importance to Sweden, after the iron, are the copper mines, which have undergone a variety of changes in their produce, and that chiefly in the principal one of Fahlun; the richness of the ore, in that mine, has considerably fallen off; in 1650, its produce was 20,321 skeppunds, or near 3,000 tons; in 1690, it fell to 10,000 skeppunds; in 1751, it was only 4,938 skeppunds; but since that period it has improved a little, and its annual produce, at present, is betwixt 6,000 and 7,000 skeppunds. Otevidberg, a copper mine, has lately been reopened, and others worked, so that the whole aggregate quantity of copper produced in Sweden, at the present time, is estimated at about 10,000 skeppunds, or near about 1,400 tons.

"In the year 1738, a gold mine was discovered at Ædelfors, in Smoland; but its annual produce not exceeding from 500 to 600 ducats, it has, of late years, been entirely abandoned.

"The silver mine of Salberg, in Westmanland, is the most ancient and the richest *of all, having continued* upwards of 300 years. In the fourteenth century, *it is reported to* have produced nearly 24,000 marks per *annum, or, according to others,* about 18,000, when silver was three times *he value that it is now; but, in* latter years, the quantity is considerabl

diminished; so that, at the conclusion of the last century, the produce amounted only to from 1,600 to 1,800 marks. The lead mines averaged, in the year 1751, 44½ skeppunds; and from 1763 to 1770, only 9. In consequence of the great falling off of the produce, the lead mine in Finland was at last entirely abandoned, and lead is now one of the imports from England into Sweden.

"The next article of the produce of Sweden, for reputation, is tar, from whence all Europe was formerly supplied for a considerable time; and had it not been for the spirit of monopoly in Sweden, arising from the idea then entertained, that it could not be had elsewhere, this branch of their trade might have been preserved exclusively to them to this day, instead of Russia participating in it, and Great Britain being driven to her colonies, to manufacture and procure it from thence, in such quantities, as even to supply other nations at a cheaper rate; but the Swedish tar is certainly of a superior quality to any other.

"The tar, exported from Sweden, is principally produced on the east side of the Gulf of Bothnia; the west side produces some. There are only four principal places in the gulf, from whence considerable quantities are sent to the staple ports for exportation, and those which chiefly collect and send off the tar, are Wasa, which produces about 10,000 barrels, besides pitch and deals; Jacobstaat, 20,000; Gamla Carleby, 30,000; Brahestadt, from 8,000 to 10,000; Uleaborg, from 50,000 to 60,000; Sweden, producing for her own consumption and exportation, from 100,000 to 130,000 barrels of tar, besides pitch.

"The tar, from Calmar and Westervik, is in very small quantities, and inferior to the tar of the Finnish ports. Archangel is the only Russian port, from which tar is exported to England. Swedish tar and crown pitch, is higher in price than any other; as the pitch which is sent from Russia and America, to England, is inferior to the Swedish.

"A considerable quantity of timber is now shipped from Sweden, chiefly to Great Britain; the prohibition to the exportation of that article, from Russia, threw a share of this branch to Sweden, as well as to Denmark. The Gulf of Bothnia produces the most considerable quantity; but the ports therein, not being staple towns, the principal exportation, it will be observed, is, by the ports of Stockholm, Gottenburg, Gefle and Abo.

"In general, the produce of a country which furnishes the inhabitants with food, is first described; but the natural situation of Sweden reverses that system, and, therefore, we have rather described the means which enable them to purchase food—their mines. The climate of Sweden, is unfavorable for the production of grain: *it is very common, that, in ten years, there are only two, and, at the most, but three ripe crops.* In the same period, there are but four or five crops middling, and the remainder wholly bad. Sweden reaps only two-thirds of what is necessary for the inland consumption. The deficiency is imported from the Baltic ports. The corn-brandy, of which the Swedes are very fond, consumes a large quantity of grain. It is said, that in years of scarcity, the Swedish poor, in some provinces in the interior, distant from the seacoast, make a composition of bark, or roots, with coarse meal, to preserve existence by this *miserable food*; yet Sweden annually imports grain from the ports of the *Baltic. A stipulation* existed, betwixt Russia and Sweden, that a certain *quantity of grain* should always be allowed to be exported from Riga. *Swedish Pomerania* principally produces wheat; but as rye is the grain

r used for food in Sweden, she goes to other ports, whilst Swedish :ania exports her produce to foreigners.

CORN IMPORTED AND EXPORTED INTO AND FROM SWEDEN, IN 1802.

Imported.		*Exported.*	
.....tons or bbls.	10,612½	Peas,.....bbls.	14
.....	17,741½	Oats,.....	10
flour,.....lispunds	1,831½	Wheat,.....	85¾
.....bbls.	6,502½	Barley,.....	677
.....	71,805	Rye,.....	17,940
.....	57,718¾		
.....	175,737¼		
al,.....lispunds	244,582		

he Swedish herring fishery, is chiefly carried on at Marstrand n, (the shoals of Marstrand,) where herrings were caught, not only Swedes, but also by the Dutch and Scotch, till the year 1679, when hery ceased; but it was renewed in the year 1753, and at present ried on with such success, that 300,000 barrels of herrings, and) barrels of their oil, are frequently produced in the season, but the e not all cured. (See decline of this fishery hereafter.)

the year 1803, the custom paid in Sweden, was only on 1,764 , or barrels, of train-oil; 2,637 barrels of smoked, or red herrings, 03,209 barrels of salted herrings.

hough there are a few manufactories of paper, soap, glass, sugar- ries, &c., &c., in Sweden, yet none of them are carried to great tion; so that the imports of Sweden consist in those manufactured which nations, whose capital is more abundant, and the arts further ced, produce, and its exports consist of its natural produce, chiefly imber, copper, tar and pitch."

PPING OF SWEDEN.—In the year 1800, the number of merchant s belonging to Sweden, amounted to 956; total burden, 63,534 and navigated by 9,929 men. Of these ships, 526 were out, or on ssage, and 430 at home, at the close of the year; 118, new built, cluded in that statement. Stockholm possessed 234 ships, of 20,085 Calmar, 43; Gottenburg, 168; Gefle, 54; Helsingfors, 25; Nor- ;, 22; Westervik, 24; Wisby, 55; Carlscrona, 33; Carlsham, 40;), 31; Uddevalla, 24; Abo, 16, &c., &c. In the year 1801, the ng of the whole kingdom consisted of 974 vessels; total burden, l tons; and manned by 9,689 seamen; new built vessels, 105; at d of the year, 493 were at sea and 481 at home. In the year 1802, n possessed 946 ships; their total burden, 62,294 tons, including w built vessels; the whole manned by 10,185 men.

number and tonnage of vessels, entered inwards and cleared out- at ports in Sweden, to and from all countries, in each year, from o 1834, was as follows:—

INWARDS.

	Swedish.		Foreign.		Total.	
	Vessels.	*Tons.*	*Vessels.*	*Tons.*	*Vessels.*	Tons.
.....	2,290	162,954	1,781	169,810	4,071	332,764
.....	*2,426*	*165,835*	1,659	161,622	4,085	327,457
.....	*2,384*	*170,224*	1,669	175,279	4,053	345,503
....	*2,701*	*174,713*	1,707	176,888	4,408	351,601
....	*2,647*	*175,193*	1,773	198,346	4,420	373,539

OUTWARDS.

Year.	Swedish.		Foreign.		Total.	
	Vessels.	*Tons.*	*Vessels.*	*Tons.*	*Vessels.*	*Tons.*
1830,.....	2,292	173,907	1,755	182,083	4,047	355,990
1831,.....	2,379	171,163	1,576	163,830	3,955	334,993
1832,.....	2,421	176,345	1,560	178,617	3,981	354,962
1833,.....	2,772	180,083	1,748	180,436	4,520	360,519
1834,.....	2,677	174,094	1,707	206,282	4,384	380,376

The number and tonnage of merchant vessels, belonging to the several ports of Sweden, in 1837, was as follows:—

No. of Vessels.	TONS BURTHEN, IN— Swedish lasts.	English tons.
924	49,219	118,125

COMMERCE OF SWEDEN IN 1781, IN STERLING MONEY, (FROM ODDY.)

	Exported.	Imported.
Denmark and Norway,.....	£160,063	£66,595
Dantzic,.....	22,358	33,246
England,.....	367,292	97,769
France,.....	203,762	83,145
Holland,.....	107,103	151,583
Konigsburg and Prussia,.....	49,689	67,580
Italy and the Mediterranean,.....	82,166	33,170
Pomerania, (Swedish,).....	67,938	187,144
Portugal,.....	125,132	40,340
Russia and Courland,.....	58,229	202,781
Spain,.....	23,380	14,711
Hamburgh, Holstein, &c.,.....	128,911	38,202
West Indies,.....	673	.....
East Indies,.....	122	10,810
Total,.....	£1,397,048	£1,027,069

"The balance in favor of Sweden, was £370,000; besides which, she is estimated to gain something considerable by the freight of ships, so that the whole, at that time, might amount to about £400,000 sterling.

"The following table will show the state of the trade, each five years, from 1700 to 1785, betwixt Great Britain and Sweden; and from 1791, each year, to the present period, distinguishing England and Scotland:"—

ACCOUNT,

Exhibiting the official value of the Exports from, and Imports into, Sweden, and the amount of Customs Revenue, for the ten years ending with 1840.

Year.	Value of exports.	Value of imports.	Total value of exp. and imports.	CUSTOMS REVENUE. On exp'ts.*	On imp'ts.	Tot. customs revenue, includ'g ton'ge duties, &c.
	r. d. banco.	*r. d. banco.*	*r. d. banco.*	*r. d. banco.*	*r. d. banco.*	*r. d. banco.*
1831,	13,565,000	12,303,000	25,868,000	428,426	1,717,845	2,641,687
1832,	14,647,000	13,757,000	28,404,000	423,139	2,172,609	2,796,344
1833,	16,903,000	13,886,000	30,789,000	451,004	2,265,408	2,952,378
1834,	15,882,000	14,527,000	30,709,000	425,474	2,298,399	2,934,539
1835,	18,585,000	15,562,000	34,147,000	512,971	2,611,969	3,377,229
1836,	18,834,000	15,537,000	34,371,000	427,761	2,520,158	3,185,636
1837,	17,453,000	16,456,000	33,909,000	328,690	2,985,274	3,605,305
1838,	22,160,000	19,499,000	41,659,000	480,573	3,277,253	3,987,174
1839,	*21,018,000*	19,363,000	40,381,000	503,315	3,026,910	3,792,678
1840,	*20,434,000*	18,308,000	38,872,000	322,926	3,055,903	3,600,203

* Nearly all on bar iron.

We give below, the total value of the imports and exports, at the ports of Sweden, in each year, from 1830 to 1833, in British sterling, as follows :—

IMPORTS.

1830.	1831.	1832.	1833.
£1,290,423	£1,080,935	£1,172,561	£1,210,155

EXPORTS.

1830.	1831.	1832.	1833.
£945,415	£947,385	£881,221	£983,406

QUANTITIES OF VARIOUS ARTICLES IMPORTED INTO SWEDEN DURING EACH YEAR, FROM 1834 TO 1838, INCLUSIVE.

Articles.	Quantities.				
	1834.	1835.	1836.	1837.	1838.
Porter, and other beer,.....galls.	.....	.....	5,189	5,625	3,210
Porcelain and earthenware,.cwts.	1,149	1,688	1,849	1,889	1,766
Cotton yarn,.....lbs.	779,266	1,038,808	1,038,780	1,101,094	907,272
Oil, from hemp-seed,.....tuns	595	416	704	1,295	138
" linseed and rape,.....	141	133	215	186	143
Machinery and mechanical implements,.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Paper, packing,.....cwt.	13	.....	.....	.....	.....
" other kinds,.....reams	2,182	2,216	4,073	2,274	2,252
Soap,.....lbs.	19	.....	.....	.....	.....
Tobacco, manufactured,.....	39,996	45,924	36,980	33,466	47,296
" cigars,.....No.	318,917	285,437	531,875	214,050	414,116
" leaf,.....lbs.	2,793,725	3,012,074	2,833,470	2,944,640	2,733,197
Hides, dressed,.....cwt.	385	578	630	368	342
" raw,.....	15,101	17,703	10,359	9,928	6,974
Ribbon,.....lbs.	.....	.....	7,954	7,491	8,026
Cotton and linen:					
Printed cloths, hdkfs.,.....yds.	.....	.....	48,774	41,491	.....
Do., other kinds,.....	.....	.....	131,238	.....	.....
Sailcloth,.....	1,543	3,239	5,192	11,448	7,314
Other kinds, cotton,.....	.....	.....	.....	680,638	.....
Do., linen,.....	.....	.....	175,032	237,455	.....
Woollen goods,.....	526,670	669,329	449,739	639,602	584,264
Silk do., except ribbons,.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
" raw,.....lbs.	20,616	34,225	20,361	24,236	24,263
Glassware, bottles,.....No.	221,660	291,613	.....	573,851	397,177
" other kinds,.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Old rags,.....cwts.	.....	.....	.....	7	.....
Cotton wool,,.....lbs.	711,020	797,705	1,104,364	931,369	1,215,301
Oleaginous seeds,.....bush.	28,816	34,187	41,200	31,693	26,651
Wool, inferior,.....lbs.	1,133,655	1,411,244	715,288	1,420,875	1,161,928
" fine,.....	39,214	11,878			
Flax,.....cwts.	814	495	72	405	329
Hemp,.....	2,991	3,044	3,330	2,626	2,901
Sugar,.....	96,575	120,360	64,512	99,446	109,786

STATEMENTS OF THE QUANTITIES OF VARIOUS ARTICLES EXPORTED FROM SWEDEN, DURING EACH YEAR, FROM 1834 TO 1838, INCLUSIVE.

Articles.	Quantities.				
	1834.	1835.	1836.	1837.	1838.
Porter, and other beer,.....galls.	.....	30,178	46,723	51,459	34,389
Porcelain,.....cwts.	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Oil,.....galls.	.....	.....	73	.....	.....
Mechanical implements,.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Paper, packing,.....*cwts.*	*188*	222	.....	.....	.....
" *other kinds,.....reams*	*30,283*	32,573	36,297	36,548	.....
Soap,.....lbs.	*26,856*	18,450	18,562	33,450	26,587

STATEMENT OF QUANTITIES OF VARIOUS ARTICLES EXPORTED FROM SWEDEN, etc.—Continued.

Articles.	Quantities.				
	1834.	1835.	1836.	1837.	1838.
Tobacco, manufactured,.....lbs. } " snuff,..... }	197,039	133,747	120,730	94,514	91,454
" cigars,.....No.	8,750	3,060	22,800	.....	.....
Hides, dressed,.....cwts.	7	12	40	9	15
Ribbon, principally tape,..... lbs.	.....	.....	829	615	295
Cotton and linen, sailcloth,...yds.	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Other kinds, cotton,.....	.....	.....	.....	30,686	40,515
Do., linen,.....	.....	.....	175,032	197,691	114,121
Woollen cloth,...	1,052	.....	.....	.....	4,966
Silk goods,.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Glassware,.....No.	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Oleaginous seeds,.....bush.	49,746	65,439	67,472	33,837	52,110
Wool,.....lbs.	17,702	.....	29,321	.....	.....
Flax,.....cwts.	154	205	389	361	336

TRADE OF STOCKHOLM.—Stockholm is built upon several islands and two peninsulas, betwixt the Maeler lake and the Baltic sea, which, properly, here forms the harbor in a bay. The largest ships can come alongside the quays, which are commodious, and lined with warehouses and other structures, for the accommodation of trade.

The entrance into the harbor, from the Baltic, is rendered intricate for shipping, by the rows of rocks and the numerous rocky islands of the Upland Shallows; between these, are four passages, two of which are for large ships. Pilots are indispensable; and ships sailing to Stockholm, are compelled to take the first pilot on board six leagues and a half from Daleron. Here, again, they receive a second pilot, who conducts the ship to Stockholm, which is eleven leagues and a half distant from Daleron. The buildings, parks and environs of Stockholm, have been greatly improved, and its streets exhibit great activity.

Stockholm, being the capital of the kingdom, and also the first staple town in Sweden, has the most extensive trade to foreign parts and with the interior. In the inland trade, it has the most convenient intercourse by the numerous lakes which are connected by canals. Exclusive of these advantages, and being possessed of nearly one-half of the trade of Sweden, its importance is increased by the circumstance, that it is the central point of all the different commercial establishments, such as the College of Trade, the Commercial College, Bank, &c., &c. Population, in 1840, 83,885. It has long been stationary, and the deaths exceed the births; the country annually supplies the town with about the difference of decrease caused by the deaths. The proportion of legitimate births is less than 2¼ to 1. Formerly, there was scarcely an inn in this capital, now there are some tolerably good, and numerous eating-houses. Its manufactures, are woollen cloths; stuffs, as camlets, shalloons, &c.; ribbons, stockings and silk handkerchiefs; some silk and cotton goods; leather and sail-cloth; tobacco manufactures and sugar-refineries; several iron foundries, a cannon foundry, some manufactures of china and earthenware, a glass-house, looking-glass manufactory; some few and valuable articles in steel, are also made here; clocks and watches, mathematical and optical instruments, &c., &c. There is also a steam *engine manufactory*, conducted by a Scotchman from Glasgow. In the *ship-yards*, a number of ships are annually built, of oak and fir, for the *foreign, as well as coasting trade.*

During the year 1841, there arrived at Stockholm, 405 vessels, of 51,408 tons, 3,512 men; value of cargoes, £811,915: and there departed 491, of 61,009 tons, with 4,258 men; value of cargoes, £558,219. Of these arrivals, 11 were British, viz.: 4 vessels had coal and coal tar; 1 vessel, coals; 2 vessels, coals and cotton yarn; 1 vessel, clay and stone; and 3 vessels in ballast. Of those departed: 5 vessels had iron and bones; 2 vessels, iron, bones and cobalt; 2 vessels, iron, tar, pitch and deals; 1 vessel, tar, &c.; 1 vessel in ballast.

The importation, chiefly in manufactured goods, from Great Britain, has increased by £5,738, during the year 1840, as compared with the preceding year, but it is believed that a much greater quantity has been smuggled into Sweden. The exportation to Great Britain, has decreased by £16,952, in the year 1840, as compared with the preceding year. This decrease has been attributed to the low prices of iron in the United Kingdom. The commerce of Sweden, with foreign nations, continues to be carried on chiefly in Norwegian vessels. In the ports to the northward of Stockholm, not one vessel of any other nation has been employed in carrying timber to foreign countries, although there has been a very considerable increase in the exportation. The speculation which excites most interest at Stockholm, at present, is that of sending out furniture, and even ready-made houses, to the British colonies in Australia, in the anticipation that the British government will extensively encourage emigration. Cargoes of that description, for several large vessels, are now in preparation, Sweden having great advantages in preparing these articles of good materials, and at a comparatively moderate expense. These wooden houses can be delivered at Australia, at from £30 to £90 sterling each, by which the merchant will gain from 50 to 75 per cent. Those of £90, (one of which I have seen,) contain one sitting-room, 21 feet by 10; three bed-rooms, a kitchen, pantry and hall, all one floor, (of wood,) having glass windows in the English style. The area, occupied by this house, will be about 70 square yards. It is very comfortably and substantially fitted with deal floors, and every convenience for fire and cooking included. A ship can carry out about 60 of these houses, so that her cargo, exclusive of other furniture, would be in value about £3,500 sterling.

The returns of the manufactures of this country, cannot be depended on, as it is well known, that the greater part (in value) given in as Swedish manufactures, is in reality smuggled. The great cotton manufactory of Stockholm, actually imports from England the greater part of the fine cotton twist sold there.

The quantity of iron exported to foreign countries, from Stockholm, during 1841, is about 304,701 skeppunds = 40,289 tons; value, at £1 10*s.* per skeppund, £456,256 10*s.* To the north of Stockholm, 80,000 skeppunds = 10,915 tons, value £120,000; making the whole quantity 51,204 tons, and value £576,256 10*s.*

The royal navy is nearly in the same state as last year, the projects for reducing and increasing, having been severally rejected by the Diet.

For the merchant navy, a number of ships and brigs have been built, at the ports in the Gulf of Bothnia, 4 at Stockholm, and 3 at Calmar; but they are generally sold *soon after launching*, and, therefore, the tonnage has only *increased 15,000 tons*, nearly half the amount of tonnage *launched, while 10 vessels are at present* on the stocks, making 3,000

tons more. Two post-office steamers have been built, one of which is of iron, but they are small vessels, with only 60 horse power.—*Stockholm, 31st Dec.*, 1841.

TRADE OF GOTHENBURG.—Gothenburg is situated in the Cattegate, nearly opposite to Skaw, at the mouth of the Gotha, and in 57° 42′ north latitude. Population, formerly, said to have exceeded 95,000. It decreased to less than 25,000. Since 1830, the population has so far increased as to be now estimated at nearly 30,000. It is the second trading town in Sweden. In winter, vessels must take pilots on board. Large vessels cannot come up to the city of Gothenburg, but are obliged to remain at a small distance from thence in the roads, whence the goods are conveyed to the warehouses, by means of canals. In this town, are manufactories of cloth and other woollen articles, particularly of the coarser kind; three or four cotton-mills, linen and canvass fabrics, &c.

There is an Exchange, East India House, docks for ship-building, &c.

As far back as 1798, there arrived 652 foreign, and 688 Swedish ships, &c.

The following goods were exported from Gothenburg, to foreign places, in the year 1804:—

77,303 ship-pounds iron,
7,401 " forged work,
2,813 " steel,
28,114 dozen boards or deals,
79,512 barrels salt herrings,
28,589 lispounds mountain moss,
1,266 barrels smoked herrings,
556 barrels of cod,
12,378 ells Swedish linen,
10,662 " sail duck,
2,679 barrels tar,
730 " pitch,
Window-glass for 13,263 rix-dollars.

There were imported into Gothenburg, in the year 1804, 55,503¼ tons, barrels of salt, being 29,000 less than in 1803; 148,494 tons, or barrels of grain, or 54,200 less than in 1803. Of East India articles, in that year, there were exported only to the value of 4,964 rix dollars; of fish-oil, scarcely any. To inland parts, there were exported 26,304 barrels of herrings.

The quantity and value of iron and deals, the principal articles of merchandise, exported from the port of Gothenburg, in each of the three years, ending with 1831, was as follows:—

IRON.

1829.		1830.		1831.	
Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
Tons.		*Tons.*		*Tons.*	
17,567	£184,458	16,433	£172,547	21,639	£227,210

DEALS.

Dozen.	Value.	Dozen.	Value.	Dozen.	Value.
56,371	£41,000	52,534	£38,400	52,866	£45,075

The principal articles of import into Gothenburgh, are sugar, coffee, tobacco, cotton, rice, indigo, train-oil, hides, rum, dyewoods, salt, cotton yarn. The value of these articles, imported in 1829, was £148,750; in 1830, £185,250; in 1831, £180,820.

Art. II.—LABOR, ITS RELATIONS, IN EUROPE AND THE UNITED STATES, COMPARED.

Human labor is the only source of wealth. This is a settled axiom in political economy. Labor acts upon materials, furnished by nature; but nature is gratuitous in her gifts, and it is only when acted on by man, that her productions acquire value in his estimation. This is no very new discovery; it is as old as the time of Locke, who set forth the principle with great clearness. It has been adopted and confirmed by the best modern writers. Labor, then, of the human body or the human mind, has furnished whatever exists of accumulated wealth. It continues, by daily action, to furnish the daily consumption of man, beside laying up a surplus for future use.

Whatever exists under the name of property, wealth or capital, is, therefore, the result or representative of previous labor—an accumulation not wanted for present, but put aside for future use.

Wealth is power. Its influence on society, on the character of man, is the subject of frequent contemplation and examination, in all its aspects. Its possessor is the object of envy and flattery, while, in its original humble state of labor, it is passed by, almost without notice, except sometimes a sigh of pity for its hardships.

Nothing is more striking than the distinction made, more especially in Europe, between labor in possession, and labor in action: in other words, between capital and labor. In Europe, and especially in England, we find the inheritor of wealth, of the accumulated labor of others, looking down with something like contempt, not only on labor itself, in its lowest form of mere manual occupation, but on all those employments whose object is the immediate accumulation of property. The possession, by the accident of birth, of wealth produced by the labor of others, is held vastly more honorable than the creation of wealth by one's own labor.

In the United States, it is quite otherwise. With all our inheritance of British notions and prejudices, there is nothing more striking than the change which has taken place in this country, in the estimation of wealth derived by inheritance, or acquired by the possessor himself. Here, all our wealth has been produced by direct labor. It has grown up in our sight, and it is impossible to attach any higher honor to him who obtains it by accident, than to him who possesses it by his own acquisition.

On the contrary, the inheritor of a fortune in this country, is judged wholly by the use which he makes of it. It gives him no advantage in the public estimation, any further than his own character will sustain itself, independently of this circumstance.

It is not difficult to perceive the causes which have produced this different estimate of the character of labor in action, in connection with individual respectability in the two hemispheres.

It is an interesting inquiry, still more so, is an examination, how far this difference of estimate is amongst the most active causes, in giving an impress to society in America, essentially different from its character in Europe. There is no circumstance, in our institutions, more deserving the attention of the philosophic observer.

In tracing *the history of* European civilization, we find labor always *and everywhere degraded.* Under the Romans, labor was performed,

and wealth produced, by slaves. The barbarians who overran the Roman empire, attached no value to any acquisitions, but those of the sword. Under the feudal system, hereditary honors were attached to the possessors of the fiefs, whilst the cultivation of the lands was performed by the serfs, held in an estimation but one degree above the cattle, who were their fellow-laborers.

The present state of England, is the result of the Norman conquest. The followers of the conqueror were permitted to divide that beautiful island amongst them, and from them are derived in succession the splendid and powerful aristocracy of the present day. Their wealth and honors were originally acquired by the sword. It is not surprising that they should continue to attach the highest honor to birth, to an hereditary succession to such honors and such estates. The present aristocracy of England is, undoubtedly, the richest and the most intelligent which has ever existed in any country. Fenced in, by the rights of primogeniture, they have, for centuries, possessed the political power of the country. It is not surprising, that newly-created wealth should there be held in far less estimation, than that which descends from such an ancestry.

This feeling pervades the whole community. The distinctive appellation of *gentleman* and *gentry*, is applied to the inheritance of an estate, especially in lands, which enables the possessor to dispense with labor, with any occupation, for the purpose of deriving profit from it. Even the inheritor of a fortune, so limited as to compel the possessor to a life of celibacy, prides himself as belonging to a caste elevated above the tradesman, with whatever fortune he may have acquired by his own industry. It is true, there are many degrees in the scale of human occupation. The higher offices in the church and the army, furnish convenient support to the younger branches of the nobility, and partake of their honor. The profession of the law produces talent, and trade produces wealth, which occasionally admit their possessors within the much courted pale of the aristocracy. These new comers, however, require a generation or two to pass away, before they can take equal rank, in the public estimation, with the old families. The only occupation, compatible with the highest dignity, is the direct service of the crown in the higher offices of state.

Thus labor, in all its forms, stands in a secondary or degraded state. Nothing can be more abject than the condition of the lowest class of agricultural laborers, or of the manufacturing operatives.

How different this, from the whole fabric of society in America? The founders of the American colonies, brought with them, neither wealth nor titles of nobility. They had no accumulated stores of either wealth or honors, on which to subsist. Nature offered them this fertile domain, on the sole condition of appropriation by labor. Their earliest political institutions, establishing perfect equality, left no avenue open to wealth or power, but labor. Under these circumstances, it followed, of course, that active industry should be in the highest esteem. Industry was the only road to wealth, and wealth is power, in every part of the world. There are instances of fortunes accumulated in large masses, during the life of an individual, but, subject to our laws of equal distribution, they are sure to be absorbed or dissipated, in the course of one or two generations.

In this state of things, it is not surprising that the acquisition of property, *by one's own* labor and skill, should be held in equal, or even higher *estimation, than* the inheritance by the accident of birth. It is true, that

the sons of the rich usually receive a better education than their fathers; and we award higher honors to the successful efforts of intellect, than to those of mere industry in the accumulation of wealth. Such an estimation, is, however, wholly founded on personal character.

Manual labor has a position with us, which it has never possessed in any period of the world.

Agricultural labor is, in a very great measure, performed by the owners of the soil and their sons. The universal diffusion of education, places our mechanics higher in the scale of intelligence, than the same class has ever stood in any country. They have the elements of character, which enable them to rise to any position in society.

The high reward of labor, in all its branches, is the great, the important distinction, which diffuses comfort, intelligence, self-respect, through the whole mass of the community, in a degree unknown in the previous history of civilization.

Titles of nobility, we have none. We attach no respect to birth. The highest offices in our little army, and even of our navy, are of no peculiar esteem. There is a scramble for the highest political places. At the same time, political office does not, of course, carry with it a high degree of public estimation. Occupation, labor, is the natural lot of all. The eloquent advocate, the learned divine, the able writer, the successful merchant, manufacturer or agriculturalist, are allotted the highest places in society. These places are only obtained through an active and successful industry. We have no class, as in all the countries of Europe, born to a life of leisure, to honors and distinctions. A few sons of the rich, inherit fortunes, which enable them to dispense with labor or profitable occupation; but they cannot be said to constitute a class, and the wisest of them, by a sort of necessity, adopt a literary or other useful employment. The mere possession of wealth, without personal character, is as little valued in this as in any other country.

It will thus be seen, that the whole fabric of our society is essentially different from any which has preceded it. Society, in England, consists of the favored few, born to ease and independence, constituting the nobility and gentry. To them, everything is subservient; from them, everything takes its tone. Travellers of this class, find in America, a lower civilization in our highest classes, than belongs to the upper class in England. It is true, ours is a working-day world. We cannot adopt the hours, nor many of the customs nor opinions, of a state of existence, which has no counterpart amongst us. The attempt at imitation, which sometimes prevails, is a mistake and a blunder. We should do better to make our manners and opinions conform to our actual position, less influenced by those of Europe. There is enough in our position to be satisfied with—a diffusion of the comforts, and even elegancies of life, through the whole mass of our population, in a degree never before seen. This is the result of an universal and well-paid industry.

Ours is a great novel experiment in politics and civilization. Whatever the result, it is our destiny to make it. It is our mission; our care should be to understand it, and make it succeed. It is an attempt to amalgamate, equalize and improve the whole mass of population, by elevating the lower portions from their *usual* abject state, and depressing the higher, in *dispensing with a privileged* aristocracy. The process consists, in

the higher reward and higher estimation of labor, with the permission to enjoy its own fruits.

There is another point of view, in which this difference in the actual condition of our labor, compared with that of Europe, involves most important consequences; that is, in connection with the science of political economy.

The modern school of political economy, is founded on the theory of Malthus on population. That theory, as is well known, supposes a tendency in the human race, to increase in population, in proportion to the means of subsistence; and that that tendency is kept in check, by the deficiency of those means, except during the existence of peculiar circumstances, which form an exception to the general rule. This theory, in its application to fully-peopled countries, with a circumstantial territory, like the British islands, is undoubtedly true; but the manner in which Malthus undertook to account for it, involved the theory in some discredit which does not belong to it. He undertook to account for it, by the different ratios in which population and subsistence naturally increase, applying a geometrical ratio to the former, and the slower arithmetical ratio to the latter. It was a fanciful idea, but wholly false and absurd in its application. With room for expansion, food is increased more rapidly than population, as is abundantly proved in the United States. Where there is no power of expansion, the greater power of increase in food is kept in check, as well as the lesser tendency in population. By this theory of Malthus, population is constantly pressing on the means of supporting life, that is to say, a portion of the human race, in its natural condition in every country, is in an actual state, or immediate danger, of starvation. In this extremity, there is a constant struggle on the part of laborers to obtain employment, as the means of preserving life by their wages. This struggle, is supposed to keep wages at the lowest point which will actually support the life of the laborer and his family. This point is thus taken to be the natural rate of wages.

The history of labor, as far as we can follow it, during the whole course of European civilization, and its present actual state in Europe, and especially in England, furnish but too sad a confirmation of the fact, that this has been, and now is, its actual condition.

This, then, is taken to be the natural state of labor—a power seeking employment beyond the means of finding it, which are limited by the amount of capital devoted to this object in the payment of wages. This low and abject state of labor, is the original principle from which McCulloch, Ricardo, Senior and others, of the modern school of economists, have drawn most important conclusions as the foundation of their system.

Labor is thus an indefinite quantity, limited in its action, by the capital devoted to its maintenance. Without capital to set it in motion, it is an inert mass, useless and impotent. A result of this view is, that the increase of wealth in a community, goes wholly to the owner of the capital as his profits. The laborer, obliged to be content with a subsistence, is not supposed capable of any accumulation. This is the rule, subject, of course, to occasional exceptions. It is, however, on this axiom, as its corner-stone, that the whole modern doctrine of free trade rests. The *question is*, the increase of national wealth. It being admitted, that *profits go wholly to* the owners of the capital employing labor, and no part *of this accumulation* to the laborer himself, it follows, that legislative in-

terference can only change the application of capital from one object to another, without increasing the quantity of labor which it sets in motion, and this change is sure to be from a more profitable application to one less so, since the sagacity of the capitalist, without this interference, would be sure to lead him to the most profitable employment of his capital. Hence is deduced another proposition—that no act of legislation can create wealth.

It requires little observation to perceive, that views founded on such premises, have no application to us. The unlimited quantity of fertile land, placed within the reach of every individual, is the distinguishing peculiarity of our situation, in an economical point of view. This furnishes to labor the easy means of subsistence, and may be considered the controlling cause, whose effects are to be traced through all the ramifications of our society. This establishes the high reward, or wages of labor, elevating the lowest laborer from the position of a mere machine, where the modern school of political economy has placed him, to one in which he becomes, at his own will, the possessor of capital. The labor of a single year, gives to every laborer, if he choose to save his earnings, a very considerable capital. He takes, at his pleasure, a place in society.

It is true, that the United States may be said to form an exception to the general rule, arising from the circumstance of its containing a quantity of unimproved land; but since this condition which forms the exception, this power of expansion, will necessarily continue for one or more centuries, it is sufficient for our present government; and we should be cautious in adopting, as rules of action, theories of political economy, drawn from a state of society so different from our own. They have no application to us.

When we see a house erected out of the clay of our fields, and the wood of our forests, we perceive that there has been a creation of wealth. When we see that this creation has been shared by the brickmaker, the mason and the carpenter, we cannot but laugh to scorn those theories which tell us that labor cannot accumulate capital. We see the thing done before our eyes.

With us, labor is, in fact, the great accumulator. It goes to work, without difficulty, on its own account. It is, therefore, perfectly clear, that that legislation which calls most labor into action, which gives it its fullest scope, is, with us, most productive of wealth. The doctrine of free trade, is founded upon the assumption, that labor is everywhere in excess, waiting to be employed by capital, in itself powerless, dependent, only asking to live. With us, labor assumes a higher tone—it treats with capital on equal terms—it shares in the profits, hand in hand with capital. The protective system rests as its basis, on the principle of an enlarged field for labor, resulting from that legislation which restricts or shuts out the competition of the cheaper and more degraded labor of Europe. The oppositon comes from capital, which alleges that this system gives to labor too great an advantage, in the power of levying a contribution in the prices of the commodities consumed by capital. The answer is, that, with us, labor and capital are so mixed together, that, in the general prosperity resulting from an active, well-paid industry, capital is sure to get its share. All writers on political economy, recognise the high reward of labor *as indicating the highest* measure of general prosperity. It ele*vates the industrial classes in the* scale of society, by giving them a power

and a taste, in the enjoyments of civilized life, and in the cultivation of their minds. With us, it does more. In addition to all this, it enables them to lay by a surplus as capital.

One great advantage, lies in the abundance and cheapness of our lands. This gives to the immediate tiller of the soil, an easier and more abundant subsistence than can be obtained, by the same labor, in any other part of the world. But he requires other enjoyments than food, and the whole question is, how can these be supplied in the manner most conducive to the wealth and happiness of the whole country. It would seem to be a simple proposition, that the application of a portion of our labor to the working up the raw materials which we produce, into the manufacture which we consume, must be the simplest and most direct mode of equalizing and diffusing the peculiar advantage which we possess, in the abundance of food, through all classes of society. As a question of political economy, of the increase of national wealth, the whole consists in inquiry, whether this system does not call into action a greater amount of labor than would find employment without it? The answer would seem to be easy, and plain common sense can hardly mistake it. With the assurance of a home market, both capital and labor set freely to work to supply it.

The question is frequently complicated, by the inquiry, why we should make at home what we can buy cheaper from abroad? This is a question which can only be put by capital. There is nothing cheaper to labor, which is purchased by idleness. A nation can buy nothing cheap, which slackens the arm of its industry. The term cheap, in such a case, has no application. The matter is only confused by reference to a money price. The real question is, the best application of labor.

It is thus apparent, how different is the position of labor, in the United States, in relation to the science of political economy, compared with labor in England. Free trade, in England, is quite a different affair from free trade in the United States. Its great effort, in England, is directed against the corn laws. It is labor, striving for cheaper food, against a landed monopoly. It rests, then, on the same principle, as the protective system with us—the benefit of labor. It is there, resisting a monopoly against itself. It here establishes a monopoly in its own favor, if one may be allowed to apply the term to an object so universal. It will be seen at once, that, both socially and politically, the position of labor in this country, opens a wide field for speculation and observation. We are, in this respect, a world by ourselves. The country of Europe, which approximates nearest to us, theoretically, is France, since the revolution. She has abolished the right of primogeniture, and her peerage is a mere shadow; but with a crowded population, and so many old prejudices remaining, labor will find it a hard struggle to acquire much estimation there. Military glory, military command, will continue to be awarded the highest honors in France, as at all the courts of the continent, as the best security of their thrones.

It is true, the present is a new era in Europe. The last half century has developed industrial power, under the direction of science, in a degree, which has no parallel in previous history. This power has brought, and will continue to bring, into existence, a mass of wealth capable of *maintaining* a claim for influence, with the landed interest, which has *heretofore been* supreme. It has already produced a considerable change,

in raising the industrious classes in public estimation. But there is a wide gulf in public opinion, which will continue to separate Europe and the United States, in their estimates of labor and industrious occupation, which will endure as long as their different institutions of government.

Art. III.—OHIO, ITS WEALTH AND RESOURCES.

But little over fifty years ago, the state of Ohio, now containing 1,680,000 inhabitants, would have appeared to a person, placed high enough above it to take the whole in at one view, one great level plain, covered over, with slight exceptions of prairie, by one huge forest. When it emerged from the ocean, under which, for ages, it lay, it must have been nearly a horizontal plane, except the northwestern counties, which formed a regular plane inclined to the northeast. When the rivers first began to carry off the water that came from the clouds, they must frequently have been at a loss what course to take, so level was the surface. Accordingly, we find them between their sources and their mouths, boxing the compass, as if determined to visit the north and the south, the east and the west, before the final determination was made to join the Mississippi or the St. Lawrence. There seem to be strong evidences that there has been some change in the elevation of some parts of the state, since the streams were established in their courses. For instance, the highest ground or range of highlands, between the lake and the Ohio, is several miles south of the sources of the streams that flow into the Ohio. However this may be, it is well established, that the tops of all our highest hills are nearly in the same plane, and that they have been made, not by an upheaving force from below, but by the removal of earth between them, by the streams that now run at their base. In other words, our hills are all hills of denudation, or, as Dr. Hildreth calls them, hills of degradation. They are in their original position, but the earth between them has been carried away, to fill up the Gulf of Mexico, and the borders of the lake. That this is so, is proved conclusively by the correspondence of the strata of the opposite hills bordering all our streams. The amount of earth that has been excavated from the great western plane, and carried into the gulf, is enormous. More than 200 miles, have the delta of the Mississippi been pushed into the Gulf of Mexico, making a large territory of country, where once the ocean wave rolled in solitary grandeur. Ohio has had enough carried out of her limits, to have made a stratum fifty feet deep, over the entire surface of the states of Massachusetts, Rhode Island and Connecticut.

The lowest point in Ohio, is the bed of the Ohio river, where it leaves the state, which is 415 feet above the ocean at New York, and 149 feet below the surface of Lake Erie. The highest grounds are at Hillsborough, in Highland county, 50 miles east of Cincinnati, and the highland west of Akron, in Summit county, being 560 feet above the lake, and 1,124 above the ocean. Columbus is 200 feet above the lake, and has probably about the average elevation of the whole state. The elevation at St. Mary's, (canal level,) is 278 feet; and at Defiance, (canal level,) 98 *feet.*

Nearly over the entire surface of the state, where it has not been cut

through by the streams, there lies a deposit of various thickness, from one foot to 100 feet, the last made before it emerged from the waters. This overlays the edges or out-cropping of the various strata beneath, and has taken its shape from those edges, as is shown by its having about the same thickness over the hill-sides, as on the plains. This stratum is known by the name of diluvium, and is sometimes classed among the tertiara strata. The portion of it which lies immediately on the previously formed strata, is commonly blue clay, containing water-worn pebbles of various kinds of rock. Upon this blue clay, commonly rests a bed of yellow clay, also containing water-worn pebbles, and is frequently interstratified with sand. This whole diluvial deposit, is believed to have been made by oceanic currents. The strata, on the out-cropping edges of which it lies, have a general dip to the east and south, and southeast, of from 20 to 30 feet in the mile. The most important of these strata, is a transition limestone, supposed to be equivalent to the mountain limestone of Europe. This is the uppermost rock, in the whole western half of the state, and constitutes the beds of most of its streams. In many places, it crops out, and thus furnishes a building material of the best quality, that may be obtained at small cost of quarrying. The islands in Lake Erie, are composed of, and based on this rock. East of the Huron and Olantangy rivers, this lime stratum dips under a stratum of skale, sometimes called clay slate; going farther east, this passes under a stratum of sandstone; still farther east, or rather southeast, the sandstone is overlaid by a conglomerate; this, still farther in that direction, is overlaid by the lower coal series, and this, by a calcario-silicious rock, above which, lies the upper coal series, passing beyond the eastern and southeastern boundaries of the state.

Thus, it appears, that notwithstanding the general level character of the whole state, the strata are so disposed, as to give us most of the valuable minerals to be found in all countries, and many of the most indispensable metals. Nearly one-third of the state, is within the great coal basin, of which Wheeling is near the middle.

In several of the southernmost counties, there are beds of the best iron ore, interstratified with coal and lime rock, which beds are extensive, and capable of furnishing iron to a vast extent. It is estimated, that the beds of workable coal would be sufficient to last 10,000 years, supposing Ohio to use as much as England and Wales now use, with a population of 16,000,000.

In western Ohio, we need never expect to find beds of coal, as our limestone stratum lies below the coal series; but we may have gypsum, and salt and lead. The former is, at present, only known to exist on Sandusky bay, but will probably, hereafter, be discovered in other places. The best soil in the world, is found in those countries, where the mountain limestone is the upper rock stratum. Poland, the midland counties of England and Ireland, are examples. This is an important fact, and nowhere more clearly exemplified than in our western states. It would seem almost superfluous, to speak of the fertile character of the soil of Ohio, but there are some varieties, due to geological formation, which may be properly noticed. That part, which has transition lime rock as its upper stratum, is, of course, possessed of a soil remarkably durable, and well adapted to wheat and grass. This portion embraces nearly half of the state, the eastern line of it commencing at the lake, near the mouth

of the Huron river, and passing in a southerly direction, leaves Columbus a few miles east, and touches the Ohio river in Adams county. All lying west of this line is emphatically a limestone country. A great part of the ten counties constituting the Connecticut reserve, is based on shale and sandstone, and although good land, and capable of producing, with careful culture, all kinds of grain and fruit, suitable to the climate, yet, lacking calcarious matter in the soil, is less fertile than the rest of the state. The middle and southeastern section of Ohio is much more uneven than the western and northern, the streams having carried away the earth to a greater extent, because it was from its nature less able to resist the action of flood and frost. This great section has the debris of the lime strata that lies in the coal series, scattered on all its hill sides and vallies, and mingling with the debris of the beds of shale and sandstone, that lie above and below them, constitutes a soil of great excellence, that has within itself, the renovating power to prevent its exhaustion, under the most constant culture. When thoroughly tested, about seven-eighths of the soil of Ohio will be found well adapted to the permanent production of wheat.

Without entering into minute calculations, or pretending to accuracy, we will now state some other of the natural capabilities of the state. On the southeast and south, it has a river shore 450 miles long, which is visited by steamers, from four to eight months of every year; and on the north it is penetrated by the southern bend of Lake Erie, which gives it a water communication for 200 miles, eight months in the year. Its interior streams, though worthless for navigation, are invaluable as feeders for canals, and for the water power which they almost everywhere afford.

Ohio has 25,000,000 of acres, nearly every acre of which may be cheaply brought into tillage; and its average fertility exceeds that of the best interval lands of primitive countries. If it were all under cultivation in wheat, it might produce 500,000,000 bushels, being nearly five times as much as is grown in the United States. It is fully able to sustain in comfort and happiness 10,000,000 of people; and with that number it would average but 250 to the square mile, or one person to every 2½ acres. In climate, we believe no other state equals it, for mildness and uniformity. Its winter cold and its summer heats are greatly tempered on the north, by the extensive body of water which bounds it in that direction; and in its southern slope it has the benefit of the soft breezes from the Gulf. Taken as a whole, it is not probably excelled, if it is equalled, in the healthfulness of its atmosphere, by any sister state.

Her position among the states, would seem to give her a better title to be called the Keystone than Pennsylvania; for she holds a middle ground between the northeast, and the northwest; and when Canada becomes an integral part of this country, Ohio will be more central than any other state. Before that time arrives, she bids fair to have more natural ways of intercourse, connecting her with the north and south, the east and the west, to the remotest bounds of the nation, than any other of the sisterhood. The Ohio river gives her on the south, cheap intercourse with all the states of the Mississippi basin; extending westward to the foot of the Rocky Mountains, southward to the Gulf, and northward to the falls of St. Anthony. *Lake Erie furnishes* to her northern counties, still superior *acilities for intercourse with the* northwest, to the 49th degree of lati-

tude, and towards the northeast to the ocean, and by means of the Erie canal to the eastern states. Her artificial ways, to connect these natural high roads, and to give all portions of her people easy access to them, are honorable to her industry and enterprise. The Ohio canal, begun in 1825, and completed in 1832, is 309 miles long, 40 feet wide at the water surface, and 4 feet deep. Its branches, beginning at the south, are 1st, the Columbus feeder, 9 miles long; 2d, the Hocking canal, 56 miles; 3d, the Muskingum improvement, 91 miles; 4th, the Walholding canal, 25 miles; 5th, the Canton side-cut, 19 miles; and the Mahoning canal, 87 miles; making in all 596 miles of artificial navigation in eastern Ohio, terminating in Cleveland, and touching the Ohio river at Portsmouth, and Marrietta. The Mahoning branch, is connected with the Pennsylvania improvements, and with them makes a continuous line of artificial highway to Philadelphia.

The Wabash and Erie canal, from its eastern termination to the junction with the Miami, 68 miles, is more than double the size of the Ohio canal; and thence to the state line, 20 miles, it is 50 feet wide, and 5 feet deep, where it is met by the Indiana portion, of the same size to Fort Wayne. The Wabash and Erie canal, in Ohio, with its side-cuts, is 91 miles long. The Miami canal, which joins it 8½ miles above Defiance, is 170 miles in length, and has navigable feeders—1st, the Sidney feeder, 13 miles; 2d, the Warren county canal, 22 miles; and the Whitewater canal, 25 miles; in all, 321 miles navigable canal within the western part of the state, and terminating at the western extremity of Lake Erie.

From the above, it appears, that when the 35 miles of the Miami canal, now nearly completed, shall be filled with water, Ohio will have, within her borders, including the 3 mile Milan canal, 920 miles of navigable canals, built at an expense of near $17,000,000. Pretty well for a state but 42 years old. Of McAdamized roads, made in part by the state, there are at present, it is believed, upwards of 800 miles; and of railroads completed, about 80 miles.

Labor to the amount of not less than $20,000,000, and probably double that sum, has been laid out on common earth roads; so that, in some seasons when they are dry or frozen, they are exceedingly pleasant to travel on, being smooth and level, without the dust so annoying on McAdamized roads. The yearly tax for opening and keeping in repair these common roads, is, probably, with what labor is given, not less than $1,500,000. It is impossible with the facts that have been collected, to make a very accurate estimate, either of the gross amount of wealth, or the yearly earnings of this state. The statistics obtained in 1840, in connexion with the United States census, are exceedingly imperfect and defective, but they necessarily constitute our main reliance in exhibiting our pecuniary condition.

We propose to give a brief sketch of the wealth of Ohio, giving to the word wealth its popular meaning, which, in our apprehension, will embrace every result of labor that tends to promote the comfort, convenience, and enjoyment of civilized man. The chief wealth of Ohio is in her lands, of which there are 25,000,000 of fertile acres. At $10 per acre, including all improvements, which we deem a fair average value, this is *worth* $250,000,000. The town property is worth $70,000,000. It will be *safe to set down* the whole real estate, as worth $320,000,000. The personal property, including household furniture, carriages, farming utensils, farm-

ing live stock, mechanics tools, and machinery of all kinds, stocks of turnpike, railroad and canal companies, of banks and insurance companies, merchandise on sale, steamboats and other vessels, owned in the state—$440,000,000. This we are satisfied, is rather under than over the true amount. Estimating the population at 1,650,000, it would be $267 to each person, and about $1,400 as the average for each family. In making this final estimate, we have put down the different branches as follows:—Household furniture, $6,600,000, equal to an average of $200 to the family; farming utensils $2,300,000, being an average of $100, for each farmer; live stock, $40,000,000, estimating the number of horses and mules at 500,000, neat cattle at 1,500,000, sheep at 3,000,000, and hogs at 3,000,000. The capital employed in the various branches of manufactures, is estimated at $20,000,000; about $3,000,000 above the returns in 1840, as exhibited in the sixth census, which we believe was deficient to more than that amount. But without allowing anything for that, it is not too sanguine to estimate the increase of the last four years at $3,000,000. The capital employed in commerce is greater than most persons, without examination, would suppose. In round numbers we set it down at $40,000,000, of which $7,000,000 for foreign trade and commission houses, $25,000,000 for retail stores, $5,000,000 for butchers, packers, &c., and the other $3,000,000 for steamers, canal boats, and other means of transportation. Of the whole $440,000,000 fixed capital, the farmers probably own some $260,000,000, the merchants $100,000,000, the manufacturing interests, $60,000,000, and the professional men and capitalists, the remaining $20,000,000. By far the greatest concentration of this capital is in the southwestern portion of the state, in and around Cincinnati. Cleveland and the country around it, is fast coming forward to be the second in the state for wealth and business, if it has not already arrived at that distinction. Zanesville forms the third focus of wealth, and on account of the fine beds of coal and iron in the surrounding country, bids fair, some day, to become extensively engaged in manufacturing. Trumbull, Ashtabula, Geauga, and Portage, are rich in fine cattle and the best productions of the dairy. The southeastern and central counties, constitute, at present, the most productive wheat region in the United States. The Scioto valley is distinguished for its corn, cattle and hogs, which it produces in great abundance. The northwestern quarter of the state is too new to have acquired much wealth of any kind; but when settled, it will be second to no quarter, but the southwest, and it may possibly overtake that beautiful and rich section. Its position, for commerce and manufactures is remarkably good, and its soil will bring forth in abundance all the productions grown in other parts of the state.

It would be an interesting problem to solve, how much of the $440,000,000 of capital has been created by labor in the state, and how much has been brought in by immigrants; but we have no reliable data to ground a speculation upon. The early settlers, it is well known, came in with very small accumulations from previous labor, but the immigrants of the last fifteen years have brought a large amount of capital with them. At the same time, it must be remembered, that Ohio has sent out a great mass of emigrants farther west, who have carried away no inconsiderable sum, *earned on the soil within her* borders. A great part, nearly the *whole of the $250,000,000 value,* now existing in the land, has been giv-

en to it, by the labor of the settlers and their sons; and the $70,000,000, now concentrated in her towns, has been mostly created by labor exerted within her limits. The commercial and manufacturing capital, has come mostly from the eastern states and Europe.

Having taken a general survey of the topography, geography and fixed capital of the state, we will now enter into an examination of the annual value of her labor and capital. The subjects on which these are mostly employed, will be taken up in the order adopted in the census returns of 1840. These returns, when not obviously incorrect, we shall adopt as the basis of our calculations, adding the probable increase since they were compiled. The product of her mines is small, as it is but recently that labor has been directed to that branch of business. In 1840, Ohio had 72 furnaces, producing 35,000 tons of cast iron; 19 bloomeries, forges and rolling-mills, producing 7,500 tons of bar iron. The men employed, were 2,300, and the capital invested, was $1,200,000. Estimating the cast iron at $30 per ton, (much of it having been made into stoves and other hollow-ware,) and the bar iron at $50 per ton, the value, in 1840, was near $1,500,000. If we add 25 per cent for the increase of the four years since, we have the sum of upwards of $1,800,000, as the product of iron mines in Ohio, in 1843.

In coal, the census returns are evidently defective. The following table shows the increase of receipts of mineral coal, at Cleveland, by the Ohio canal:—

In 1838,.....	73,292	bushels.
" 1839,.....	134,881	"
" 1840,.....	172,206	"
" 1841,.....	478,370	"
" 1842,.....	466,844	"
" 1843,.....	387,834	"

The number of bushels raised in the state, in 1839, is put down in the census at 3,500,000. We believe that 5,000,000 would have been nearer correct. Admitting, however, the increase of other parts of the state to equal that which seeks Cleveland for a market, and we shall make a low estimate if we set down the number of bushels raised in 1843, at 12,000,000. At an average of 6 cents the bushel, the value of this mineral will be $720,000. Of salt, the production, like that of coal, is rapidly increasing. In 1839, it was 300,000 bushels. If we put it at 450,000 bushels, in 1843, at 20 cents the bushel, it will amount to $90,000.

Of stone, quarried, the census has the yearly value of less than $200,000. We know some counties, where stone is extensively quarried, that are blank under this head. Among these, are Hamilton and Erie. We have no hesitancy in putting down the value of stone, quarried in the state, at $800,000, which we believe to be an under estimate. The products of mines, will, put into a table, stand thus:—

Iron,.....	$1,800,000
Coal,.....	720,000
Salt,.....	90,000
Stone,.....	800,000
Total,.....	$3,410,000

Next to mines, comes agriculture. The number of horses and mules, is 500,000. If we take one-fourth, as the yearly product, and value them at $40 each, it will make $5,000,000. Of neat cattle, there are 1,500,000, worth $8 each. Allowing one-third, as the annual product, and it amounts to $4,000,000. The present number of sheep is about 3,000,000. The annual product, in wool and increase, can scarcely be less in value than $4,500,000. The swine may be set down at 3,000,000, of which 1,500,000 are yearly put into pork, and in that shape are worth $5 each, making $7,500,000. Poultry, $1,000,000; wheat, 20,000,000 bushels, worth $13,000,000; 250,000 bushels of barley, worth $160,000; 17,000,000 bushels of oats, worth $4,500,000; 1,000,000 bushels of rye, $500,000; 1,000,000 bushels of buckwheat, $400,000; 40,000,000 bushels of maize, worth $13,000,000; hops and wax, worth $30,000; potatoes, 8,000,000 of bushels, $2,000,000; hay, 2,000,000 of tons, at $5 the ton, $10,000,000; hemp and flax, 12,000 tons, $500,000; tobacco, 7,500,000 pounds, at 5 cents the pound, $375,000; 5,000 pounds of silk coccoons, $15,000; 7,000,000 pounds of sugar, at 6 cents, $420,000; 6,000,000 cords of wood, (by estimate, for the census gives no light on the subject,) at $1 the cord, $6,000,000; products of the dairy, (by estimation,) $9,000,000; products of orchards, $3,000,000; home-made family goods, $4,000,000; gardens and nurseries, $1,500,000. The above, all added together, make the large sum of $90,400,000. To this should be added 500,000 acres of land, cleared and fenced, at $10 per acre; making, as the gross earnings of the farmers and gardeners of Ohio, $95,400,000. The yearly earnings of commerce, in 1840, were estimated, by Professor Tucker, at a little over $8,000,000. This was evidently too low, being based on the census, which, in some parts, bears on its face, evidence of its defective character. The amount of commerce, in its various branches, on the Ohio river, on the lakes, on her 900 miles of canal, on her MeAdam and other roads, embracing transportation and all the exchanges, by wholesale and retail, over the whole state, was, in 1840, according to the census, but about $35,000,000. If we put it at $40,000,000, and its gross yearly earnings at $18,500,000, it will rather fall short of, than exceed, the true amount.

In the department of manufactures, the census appears to be particularly defective, yet the amount of capital given for the whole state, is less than $17,000,000. The gross yearly earnings of all branches of manufacture, including mills, houses, ships and boats, we estimate at $20,000,000. The products of the fisheries, in all the rivers and Lake Erie, would be estimated low, at $100,000. Those of the forest, of which lumber, pot and pearl-ashes, and skins and furs are the principal, may be safely estimated at $900,000.

The yearly earnings of the state, then, in the various branches of industry, may be fairly set down as follows:—

Of mines,.....	$ 3,400,000
Agriculture,.....	95,400,000
Commerce,.....	13,500,000
Manufactures,.....	20,100,000
Fisheries,.....	100,000
Forest,.....	900,000
Total,.....	$133,400,000

This is about $60,000,000 above the estimate of Professor Tucker, and yet we are satisfied that it is rather under than over the true amount. Our estimate is intended to embrace the increase of the four years since the census, on which Professor Tucker's estimate is based. Our estimate makes the yearly earnings of each family $404, working on an average capital of over $1,400. To each person in the state, it allows an average of $80, out of which he must be fed, clothed, educated, &c., and from which, all additions to the fixed capital of the state, must come. The yearly earnings of Massachusetts, are known to amount to not less than $100,000,000. This is twice as much in proportion to her numbers as those of Ohio. This, we believe, is owing far more to the greater variety of employments, especially manufacturing, than to the superior industry of the people of the bay state. There, profitable employment is given to persons of both sexes, and to every age and condition. In Ohio, women and children have few employments that can be exercised to much pecuniary profit. In fixed capital, too, Massachusetts has greatly the advantage, which she is sure to keep as long as the silly enactments of our legislature are directed against the introduction of foreign capital. A steady course of legislation, favorable to the introduction of capital from the old states and from Europe, would soon put a new face on our industrial affairs, and cover Ohio with the blessings of a durable prosperity.

Art. IV.—MERCHANT SEAMEN.

The large amount of merchant shipping engaged in the imports and exports of the United States, the capital invested and the number of individuals whose interests are involved in the navigation of ships, induce us to devote the present paper to a brief review of the legal rights and duties of merchant seamen. In prosecuting this labor, we shall only exhibit the more prominent principles that govern those who are employed in our merchant service, either as mariners or masters of ships, without attempting to develop that vast body of complex law bearing upon the subject, and, of course, not adapted to the design of a popular mercantile journal.

It is obvious that, in order to the security of the rights of the owners of the merchant vessels that are continually entering and departing from our ports, by hundreds, as well as that of seamen, the laws regulating the merchant service should be as clearly defined and operative, in every part of the wide ocean navigated by those vessels, as those which govern our rights and duties upon the land. Accordingly, a vast body of commercial law has grown up, deriving its origin from the earliest period in which the sea has been navigated by ships, and it will be our design to exhibit some of its more practical rules, that are the most frequent in their application to common voyages.

The mariner is deemed in the eye of the law, in one sense, a citizen of the world, whose home is on the deep, and entering the service of any nation where he is legally permitted, he can seek the compensation for his labor, at the hands of the law, for his contract is recognised by general *jurisprudence*. We will, therefore, consider him first on entering the *service, and the* nature of his contract.

There are certain peculiarities, which govern the contract made with

seamen, entirely distinct from those of the land; and these peculiarities grow out of the necessity of the case, and the singular nature of the marine service. The principal of these, in our own country, relate to the apprehension of the seaman and his punishment, if he fails to render himself on board the vessel in which he is employed, according to his contract, and the infliction of corporal punishment upon him, if he wilfully fails to perform his duty.

Let us now examine the contract made by the seaman with his employers; for, to that contract, there are three parties, the mariner, the master and the owner: the mariner constituting, in legal phrase, the first party to the contract, and the master and the owner the second party.

The maritime law, doubtless, permits the mariner to contract for a sailing voyage on the same terms that he would be permitted to make any contract upon the land. A person of full legal age, twenty-one years, can enter into a contract of this sort, but not a miner or apprentice; and if a minor or apprentice enters into this contract without the consent of his parent or guardian, the sum paid to either of them may be recovered by the latter; or, if a minor child is induced to go a voyage upon the high seas against the consent of the parent, an action for damages will lie against the person who induced him, by the parent.

The master of the vessel is usually employed to hire the seaman, and although in this hiring, he is the agent of the owner, and they have co-ordinate power, still, if the owner does not dissent, the engagement entered into by the master with the seaman, will be binding on the master. The contract is, however, not made with the person of the master, but with the ship, or rather the owner; and if there is no master, yet the owner may make a contract with the seaman to sail with whatever master may be appointed. Thus, on the one side of the contract is the seaman, and on the other, the master and the owner; the former acting as the agent of the latter, under most circumstances, although the latter is, of course, from his holding the property in the ship, more directly affected by the contract.

The master and owner, on their side, agree by the contract, which is executed in the form of what is denominated "*shipping articles*," or a paper drawn up and signed by all the seamen, usually expressing the terms of the voyage, to pay to the mariners their wages. It is also implied in the contract, that the voyage shall be legal, that the vessel shall be seaworthy, or provided with all the requisites for navigation, and that the voyage shall be definite and certain, without deviation, unless it is absolutely necessary for the safety of the crew, vessel or cargo. It is also a part of the contract, that the seamen shall be treated with humanity, and that they shall be provided with subsistence according to the laws of their own country, unless the contract otherwise expressly provides, or the usages of particular trade otherwise warrant. If the seaman is sick, from causes occurring during the voyage, and not from his own fault, he may be cured at the expense of the ship, and the law requires the master to bring the seaman back to his own country.

The seaman, on his side, by the act of signing the shipping articles, contracts to do all within his power for the welfare of the ship; engages that he is of competent health and knowledge to perform the duties of the station *for which he contracts*; to be on board at the precise time *agreed upon, which, by our own* law, constitutes a part of the shipping

articles; and to remain in the service of the ship, until the voyage is completed. If he does not so render himself on board the vessel, he may be apprehended and committed to the custody of the law until the ship is ready to sail. The seaman, moreover, contracts to obey all the lawful commands of the master, to preserve the order and discipline of the ship, and to submit to the same subjection, as a child to a parent, for the purpose of preserving that order and discipline during the voyage.

It is not proposed to enter into a minute description of the "*shipping articles*," a paper that is the ordinary evidence of the contract between the master and the seamen. It usually states the commencement and end of the voyage, and the 3d section of the act of July 20th, 1840, declares, that the articles and list of the crew "shall be deemed to contain all the conditions of contract with the crew, as to their service, pay, voyage and all other things." Although the shipping paper is ordinarily the evidence of the voyage, still, where there is fraud, or mistake in its terms, the usage is for courts to exercise a liberal discretion in favor of the mariner. By the act of Congress, of 1790, it is provided that, if a seaman is taken upon a voyage without the execution of the shipping paper, the master or mariner shall pay to the seaman the highest wages that have been given within three months, next before the time of such shipping; and a later statute, of 1840, declares, that all shipments of seamen made contrary to this and other acts of Congress, shall be void; and any seaman so shipped, may at any time leave the service, and demand the highest rate of wages given to any seaman shipped for the voyage, or the sum agreed to be given to him on his shipment. In the bank and cod fisheries, the contract of seamen with the masters and owners, is required to be in writing, expressing the general terms of the voyage; and in the whale fishery, although no shipping paper is absolutely required by the law, still they are uniformly employed, stipulating, among other things, the terms of the voyage, and the shares or "*lays*" of each officer and seaman on board the ship.

The several modes in which the contracts of seamen are executed, are the hiring by the voyage, by the month, during so long a time as the voyage shall continue, for a share of the profits of a certain described voyage; or for a share of the freight of a certain described voyage, the first two involving the hiring on time, and the last two, the hiring for a stipulated share of the freight or profits.

We now proceed to a consideration of the master's authority over the crew and passengers, and it must be admitted that the responsibilities of masters of vessels are deep and various. The master is employed as the agent of a large amount of property, and the director of a crew of men under circumstances the most difficult, and frequently the most dangerous. Forecast, decision, courage, judgment, are all required during most hazardous periods, in contending with the passions of men, and the equally terrible storms of the sea. Traversing the lonely waste of the ocean, away from succor, with a body of men at his command, with the safety of lives depending on his skill, and valuable cargoes in his custody, he is invested with a power by the law, which, upon the land, would equal almost a despotism, and this from the very necessity of the case. He possesses *in fact the same* kind of power as is exercised by a parent over a child. *He is invested by* our own law with the sole government of his ship, with *the right of* direction, subject however to the legal consequences of the

abuse of his powers. He may, for example, enforce his authority by the infliction of due punishment upon the crew, but if he exceeds the proper limits, he will be liable to an action by the seaman for civil damages, as well as to a criminal prosecution by a statute of the United States. The proper measure of punishment as proportioned to the offence, is to be ascertained by the particular circumstances of the case. The punishment must be also with proper weapons. So also the master has the right to imprison a seaman on board ship, especially when a serious crime has been committed, calling for legal investigation. To the passengers, however, the master stands in a different relation from that with the crew. Although he possesses the right to restrain *them* from violating the order and peace of the ship, he can require them to perform no services, except in time of danger. Even this they can avoid by leaving the vessel if they choose so to do. He is bound to treat them with courtesy and kindness, and a course of conduct, either tyrannical or malicious, will be punished by courts of justice. He is also bound to provide sufficient stores for their use, being responsible for any neglect in this respect.

The duties of the mate are similar to those of the master of a vessel. In the absence of the master he stands in his place, and his ordinary duty is to see that the commands of the master are obeyed, to exercise a general superintendence over the affairs of the ship, to advise the master of that which requires his notice, to attend to the receiving and stowing of the cargo, to attend to the sailing of the vessel while at sea, and to keep the log book, that important evidence in all maritime cases, in which he should enter an accurate and minute journal of the voyage. In fine, he should be a vigilant, dutiful, and finished seaman, and should be competent to discharge the duties imposed upon him. If the master is dead or absent, the mate, as the next highest officer on board, succeeds to his office with all its responsibilities and duties. If he is guilty of gross negligence, involving the loss of cargo, he alone is responsible; and if he interfere with the responsibility of another, he is also responsible. For example, if he undertakes to remove any merchandise, and it is lost, thus interfering with a wharfinger, who, according to usage, is responsible for the safe delivery of goods on board the vessel, the loss thus accruing, by such interference, is to be deducted from the amount of his wages.

Our own law has also provided for the subsistence of seamen, by requiring a certain amount of provisions to be shipped on board of every vessel, of one hundred and fifty tons burthen, bound on a voyage across the Atlantic Ocean, and elsewhere, and in like proportion for shorter or longer voyages. Their right to be cured of sickness, at the expense of the ship, is clear and well established, although it is equally clear that this sickness must occur while in the service of the ship, and must not be occasioned by the faults or vices of the mariner, or while absent on business or pleasure, or without permission. In accordance with the provisions of that act, our own vessels, above a certain tonnage, and bound for any ports beyond the limits of the United States, must be provided with a medicine chest, with all proper directions for the benefit of seamen. Provision has, moreover, been made for sick and disabled seamen, by the erection not only of temporary but permanent hospitals. To that end the law requires that when any one of our ships arrives from a foreign port into *one of our own, before* she is admitted to an entry, the *master or owner must pay into* the hands of the collector twenty cents

per month for every seaman employed; and this, also, is the case in every vessel employed in the coasting trade. This sum is retained out of the wages of the seamen, and constitutes a fund under the management of the President of the United States and directors appointed by him, for the maintainance of marine hospitals, in the several districts.

The law is, moreover, peculiarly strict, regarding marine offences, and we shall now briefly consider the principal offences of this sort. Barratry, it is well known, is a term applied to a breach of duty by the master or mariners, against the owner, relating either to the ship or cargo, and its consideration belongs more especially to the subject of marine insurance.

The penalties for maritime offences act against the offender, either by legal sentences, in courts of law, direct corporeal punishment, or the forfeiture of wages. Among these offences are, destroying and running away with the ship, mutiny, piracy, piratical confederacy, endeavor to commit a revolt, desertion, absence, embezzlement, negligence, drunkenness, and disobedience; all of which are very grave offences, and punishable in a greater or less measure by the law.

As it is the duty of the seaman to adhere to the ship, under ordinary circumstances, until the completion of the voyage, so, also, it is the duty of the master to return the seaman to the port of departure. There are certain general circumstances, and also particular acts on the part of the seaman, which will warrant a discharge. Misconduct on the part of the seaman, amounting to continuous drunkenness, disobedience, negligence, or dishonesty, tending to a radical disqualification or unfitness for duty, would warrant such discharge. But if the seaman offers amends, even in the case of aggravated offences, it is usual to refrain from giving this discharge. By a law of the United States, the master of every ship, bound for a foreign port, is required to deliver to the collector of the port from which he clears, a list of his crew, and to receive a copy of this test, certified by the collector. He is also required to exhibit this test to the first boarding officer, at the first port of the United States to which he shall arrive, and produce the persons named in the list, to the boarding officer, who reports the same to the collector. If a ship or vessel of the United States is sold in a foreign country, and her company discharged, or if a seaman, mariner, or citizen of the United States is discharged, it is the duty of the master or commander, to produce to the consul or vice consul, the commercial agent, or vice commercial agent, the list of his ship's company, and to pay to the officer for every man discharged, three months pay, over and above the wages due to him, two-thirds of which are to be paid to each seaman or mariner so discharged, on his engagement on board of any vessel to return to the United States, and the other remaining third to be returned as a fund for the payment of the passages of seamen or mariners of our own country who desire to return to the United States, and to support American seamen who are destitute in such foreign port. The money is to be accounted for with the treasury every six months. This provision, however, only applies to the voluntary discharge by the master, and not to those cases where the discharge has resulted from inevitable necessity or superior force.

The occurrence of an inevitable disaster at sea, will not exempt the *master from* the payment of the sum alluded to, unless the vessel can be *repaired at* a reasonable expense. If the ship is captured, the seamen

have a right to remain by the ship, and await the prize proceedings, and if the crew are discharged while the ship is able to proceed on her way, they will be entitled to their two months pay. The act of Congress of 1840, however, somewhat enlarges the discretionary powers of consuls or commercial agents, in foreign ports, in discharging mariners from their vessels. If application is made by the master and mariner for a discharge, he may give this discharge upon such terms as he can make with the master, in order to exempt the United States from a liability to support the mariner so discharged, and without the payment of any sum of money; and if a mariner has deserted, and is reclaimed by the consul, if it is ascertained that this desertion has been caused by ill treatment, the consul may discharge the mariner, who will be entitled to receive three months pay, besides the wages up to the time of the discharge. The consuls are also bound to provide for the passage of all destitute seamen of our own, found within their districts, to their own country; and the masters of vessels belonging to our own country, are also bound to take such mariners on board their vessels, on terms agreed upon between the parties, not exceeding ten dollars for each person, and under certain other conditions. A law of the United States also prohibits the forcing ashore a seaman in a foreign port, maliciously, and without a justifiable cause, under certain penalties.

We now proceed to a consideration of the master's relation to the ship. The property of the ship being the owners, the majority, of course, have the power of appointing a master, who acts, in relation to the ship, as their agent. If unable to attend to his duties, the master has the power, while in a foreign port, to appoint a substitute, or the consignees of a ship or cargo in a foreign port, have likewise the power to appoint a substitute, (if the master should die, and devolve the management upon themselves,) who assumes all the rights and duties of his predecessor. It appears that the owners have the right to remove the master, who is part owner of a vessel; but if he is removed without good cause, and he is engaged for a particular voyage, they must answer to him in damages. Where, however, he has only a general engagement with the vessel, his relation to the owners would seem to be a mere agency, liable, however, at any time to be revoked. Nor can the master himself, leave the ship in which he has contracted to sail, without being liable in damages, unless the owners desire to keep him from his post, and in that case he must give notice.

In his authority, over the ship, the master is the agent of the owners, and must manage the vessel for their interest. Although bound by their orders, where express orders are given, still, in the absence of those orders, his own authority governs as master of the ship. If the ship has been accustomed so to be let, he can let the ship, to be chartered by another, according to the usual course of its trade, provided that it is in a foreign port. But if it is let to charter in a home port, it must be with the owners' knowledge. The case is the same in the procuration of freight, the master acting as the agent of the owners, their own assent being presumed, if they are present, and make no objections. He may, also, receive goods on board the vessel, as a general ship, and give bills of lading, which will be binding upon the owners when signed by the master; and if a merchant *ships goods as freight*, he has a lien on the vessel for all *damages that they may sustain* through the carelessness of the master, or

the unseaworthiness of the vessel, it being hypothecated to him for his damages. But it is necessary, in this case, that the ship should be a general freighting ship. The master of the ship is, moreover, usually empowered to hire the other officers and seamen, unless the power is withheld by the owners.

The master also has the right to order the victualling and repairing of the ship, unless it is shown that the owner, or ships husband, managed the vessel; and such contracts will be binding on the owners upon two grounds, first, the authority upon which the master acts, as agent for his principal, their owners; and secondly, the fact that they receive the benefits of the contract. He may even borrow money necessary for the prosecution of the voyage, if in a foreign port, and the owner will be responsible. If, however, he cannot otherwise obtain a supply of money for that object, he may resort to the direct hypothecation of the ship, by a bottomry bond. If by the bottomry bond alone, the supply of money can not be procured, the master is empowered to draw bills of exchange upon the owners, collateral to the bond, and the owners are bound to their acceptance. But it is necessary in order to make the owners responsible, that the advances thus made should be necessary supplies for the prosecution of the voyage, or the safety of the ship. But the master cannot resort to bottomry, if there are funds of the owners on board the ship, to which he is first bound to resort, and even if the *master* possesses funds on board, an opinion has been pretty strongly intimated by Mr. Justice Story, that he is bound to apply those funds to the safe prosecution of the voyage. The ship can, however, only be hypothecated in a foreign port, and it was adjudged by the great authority of Chief Justice Marshall, that in our own country, a foreign port was any port out of the state in which the owner resides. If the vessel is wrecked, and becomes so out of repair as not to be navigated, and no money can be procured for that object, or the vessel cannot be repaired but at an expense of half her value, when repaired she can be sold by the master.

In general the owners are responsible for injuries committed by the master in that capacity, as in cases of collusion, discharges of mariners, damages to cargo, in consequence of the want of ordinary care, and embezzlement.

We now come to the personal liability of the master, who is, doubtless, answerable for all the contracts which he makes, connected with the navigation of a ship, as well as on charter parties and bills of lading signed by him. He is, moreover, liable for all damages springing from his own want of skill or care, repairs and supplies, pilotage and wages of seamen. But if supplies and repairs are made upon the exclusive credit of the owner, the master will not be responsible; but ordinary supplies and repairs, ordered by the master, will usually be a valid charge against him. He is also liable for the illegal injuries done by himself and those of his crew, but not for the wilful trespasses of his crew not done within the scope of his commands.

If the master of a ship is at the same time commander and consignee, he stands in two relations, both as agent of the owner and the consignor, and is invested with appropriate duties in these two capacities. Inasmuch, as the master and owner are in law common carriers, it is the duty of the *master to see* that his vessel is seaworthy, provided with a proper crew, *and to take* a pilot, where a pilot is required by custom or the law, to

stow the goods properly, to set sail in fair weather, to transport the cargo with due care, and to provide against all mishaps but those which arise from the acts of God and the public enemy. So, also, in the power possessed by the master over the cargo, if he cannot obtain funds on a pledge of the ship, he can bind the whole cargo for those repairs necessary for the prosecution of the voyage, or he may sell a part of it for the same purpose. But in this matter he must act with reasonable discretion. He may throw overboard a part of the cargo in a storm to save the ship and cargo, or he may part with a portion of the cargo as a ransom for the remainder, or he may bind the entire ship and cargo for the same object. If, moreover, the vessel is driven into an intermediate port, in a state requiring repairs, and the ship cannot be repaired at all, or without great loss of time, the master may tranship the cargo into another vessel and send it on. If the vessel can be thus repaired, he may wait until the repairs are made; but if the cargo is perishable, and there is no time or chance to consult the proprietor, he may sell a part, or hypothecate the whole, or do the best as in his judgment is for the interest of the whole cargo, or if his own ship becomes disabled, it is the duty of the master to go to a contiguous port, to procure another ship, and if it cannot be found there, he is bound to go no further. Finally, the master must proceed from the port of departure to the port of discharge, in the most ordinary track, without deviation, remain by the cargo, in case of capture, and deliver it to the consignees on the termination of the voyage.

The power of the master in relation to the freight, results from his duties as agent of the owner, and he may receive the freight, retain the goods until the freight is paid, and when arriving at his port of discharge, he may demand his full freight, or if he can procure the money from no other source, he may hypothecate the freight by a bottomry bond. The freight and ship are in fact required to be hypothecated, before the cargo can be touched. Although the master possesses no lien upon the ship for his wages, yet it would seem that he holds such a lien upon the freight; at all events, he has the right to retain it when it once comes into his hands, in order to reimburse himself as a general creditor of the owner.

We now arrive at the consideration of the payment of wages. It is clearly the duty of the mariners to remain by the vessel until the cargo is discharged, it being a part of their contract so to do. When thus discharged, the seamen have a claim to their wages in our own country; and if not paid within ten days after such discharge, they have a right to admiralty process against the vessel. Only one-third of the wages earned can be demanded by the mariner at any port of delivery during the voyage, unless expressly stipulated, and if the ship is lost, or is captured, those wages that were earned up to the last port of delivery, may be recovered by the mariner upon his return home, unless the vessel has earned freight; and unless she has made the entire voyage, wages are not recoverable by the seaman, and inasmuch as they depend upon the safety of the vessel and cargo, and the earning of freight, they cannot be insured. If the vessel is lost on the homeward voyage, and freight was, or might have been *earned on the* outward voyage, the wages are due at *the port of delivery of the* outward cargo, "and the port of destination *is in general to be deemed a* port of delivery for the purpose of wages,

though the vessel may have gone there in ballast." In case of capture, the seamen lose their wages, unless the ship is restored, and in case freight is decreed, even under sentence of condemnation, when their wages are due. In all cases of rescue, recapture and ransom, the wages of mariners are subject to a general average, but in no other cases are they liable to contribution. In case of shipwreck, it would seem that if parts of the ship are saved by the exertions of the seamen, they hold a lien on those parts for some kind and extent of compensation, but this may be considered somewhat in the light of salvage. The general rule is, that freight must be first earned, in order to entitle the seaman to wages.

It would also seem clear, that where the duty of a crew has ceased, and they are discharged from their ship, they may, in some cases, by rescuing the vessel, become salvors; but those cases occur in extraordinary emergencies. When a seaman dies on board ship, wages are usually allowed up to the time of the decease, if the cause of the death occurred, not from his own fault, and while thus shipped; and these wages are recoverable by the representatives of the mariner. In the whale fishery, the representatives of a deceased mariner are entitled to that share of the profits, which the term of his service bore to the whole voyage, according to his contract. If a voyage is broken up, by the fault of the master or owner, full compensation is rendered to the seaman in the nature of damages; so, also, in cases of wrongful discharge, the seaman usually recovers full indemnity in our courts of law.

Sometimes, however, the conduct of the mariner operates a forfeiture of his wages, either in the whole or in part. Sometimes, there is a statute forfeiture, and in that case, where the statute does not cover the offence, the master or owner may fall back upon the original principles of the contract and seek compensation for the damage received, and he may set off the claim for damage against the claim for wages. Total forfeiture of wages, is, however, seldom inflicted, unless the misconduct of the seaman is of an aggravated character, amounting to a breach of the contract, such, for example, as desertion. Embezzlement, negligence, drunkenness and disobedience of orders, usually incurs a forfeiture of less than the entire wages; and, in case of a condonation or a pardon, the mariner is re-established in all his rights, and the forfeiture of his wages is cured by a faithful performance of duty afterwards. In those cases, however, where the offence of the seaman is not aggravated, and punishment has been inflicted at the time, no forfeiture of wages accrues.

We now come to the remedies, possessed by mariners, for the recovery of their wages. The seaman, as has been before intimated, has a lien for his wages, and the master is empowered to sell the vessel, if he cannot otherwise pay the seamen: for it is declared by the *Consolato del Mare*, that the seamen ought to be paid, "*though there remains but a single nail for the payment.*" The nature of the lien held by the seaman upon the vessel, is distinct from a lien as it is understood in reference to other subjects, for it is a special charge upon the ship, and entitled to be paid before any other special charge upon the same thing, and it attaches to the proceeds of the ship, even if converted into money. It is even entitled to be paid before the debts, for which an express hypothecation of the ship *may have been given*, and can only be extinguished by the destruction of *the thing, by* payment, or by prescription, or laches, or a renunciation of *his rights by the* mariner. In the first case, there must be a total destruc-

tion of the thing, for if any part is saved, the original lien adheres to it. The lien, of course, is lost by payment, or in proportion to that amount which is paid. It is also lost, by negligence on the part of the mariner: for example, his permitting a vessel to pass into other hands, when he knew it was thus passing, without making known his claim, would be a waiver of his lien, still, the equitable circumstances of each case must govern. A seaman, also, has a lien upon the freight for the payment of his wages, and this lien can be enforced by seizing it in the hands of the master, or the merchant, before it is paid over: for, as he has his remedy against the last plank of the ship, so, also, he has against the last particle of the freight.

The mariner, moreover, has his remedy against the master, for he can recover his wages of him personally, or he can recover them of the owner or owners of the vessel, or the person who appointed the master and gave him his authority. But in the case of a chartered ship, it would seem that the hirer of the ship or the master whom he appoints, and not the general owner, is responsible for wages; but the last case has not been directly decided.

For those personal injuries, inflicted by the master upon the mariner, such as assaults, batteries or imprisonments, the seaman has his remedy, either by an action of tresspass at the common law, or by a libel in the admiralty, in what is technically denominated a cause of damage. So, also, in a wrongful discharge, a cause of action would lie, not only in the special tort committed, but also for the wages upon the original contract of hiring, the wrongful discharge being void.

In order to institute suits in courts of admiralty, it is necessary that the voyage should be on tide waters, and that the service on which suit is brought, should be connected with commerce and navigation. The jurisdiction of those courts in personal suits, embrace claims founded in contract and in wrong, and also those cases where claims, founded in a hypothecary interest of the nature of a lien, are urged. The jurisdiction extends, moreover, to those cases in which shares of fish, taken in the bank and other cod fisheries, and of oil, in the whale fishery, are claimed; and it is a peculiarity of admiralty jurisdiction, that the seamen may unite the claims founded upon their distinct contracts, in one suit, but this only in their demands for wages. The courts of common law, also, take cognizance of mariners contracts, but they are not competent to give the remedy so as to enforce the mariners lien upon the vessel, and they confine their jurisdiction to personal suits against the master or owner, according to the contract made by the employers with the seaman; but in cases of torts that have been committed upon the high seas, and where the form of the action is trespass, or a special action on the case, the common law has concurrent jurisdiction.

We have thus concluded a sketch of the rights and duties of merchant seamen, a body of men that have grown to a vast number, with the rapidly increasing commerce of the country. The very large amount of capital employed in commerce, and the enormous quantity of property afloat upon the ocean, and committed, while thus afloat, to their charge, render their labors and duties those of high responsibility. Exhibiting in their characters, a *combination of* excellent and evil qualities, they have *always been under the especial* guardianship and protection of our courts *of admiralty, and, as we have* already seen, many precautionary measures

have been adopted by the laws for the benefit of those who may be destitute. Nor has philanthropy been wanting, in extending its efforts in their behalf, by establishing for them the means of education and religion. We hope that, as our commerce dots the ocean with its canvass, and crowds our ports, from Maine to Louisiana, with its shipping, the improvement of the seamen will keep pace with its increase; so that those who are made the agents in pouring wealth into the country, may also be the efficient agents in its amelioration.

Art. V.—HISTORY OF BANKS AND BANKING IN ILLINOIS.

Banks in Illinois—At Shawneetown—At Edwardsville—At Cairo—Relief Laws—Old State Bank—Late State Bank—Its History—Progress and Decline—Legislative Acts relative thereto—Banks go into Liquidation.*

The cause of heat and cold, in different latitudes, and of rain, hail and snow, in different seasons, says a distinguished writer, with more truth than poetry, are explained by professors of natural science, to our entire satisfaction. The change of climate, the approach of storms and the origin and cause, the course and progress of the wind, are also explained, and the future predicted with some *considerable certainty*. In banking, however, it is otherwise. Like the weather, it is affected by causes which control the latter, and possesses, in an eminent degree, some uncertainties peculiarly its own. While the storm and the tempest rage, and pestilence and famine reign, the fondest hopes that man e'er cherished, are frequently blasted. His property is destroyed by the tempest, or swallowed up by the earthquake; he is exposed alike to the tornado and to the avalanche, the consuming fire, the wasting pestilence, the devouring famine; and an excess of heat or cold, fixes frequently his destiny. In banking, similar contingencies not unfrequently happen; and to these, man's caprice and human depravity, the infidelity of agents and the instability of popular opinion, (banks being the creatures of the latter,) are often to be added. Of the truth of these several positions, historic recollections, especially in Illinois, are decisive.

Men in business, it is said, are like patients in the last stages of the consumption—hoping for a favorable change, but growing worse and worse every day until they expire. If we are to credit reports, said to be authentic—if the defalcations of clerks, agents, cashiers and presidents, with which the public ear has recently been filled, are real—banks, and their officers are worse than formerly, and, like the consumptive patient, in spite of legislation, must shortly expire.

All the banks in Illinois, have ceased to be. Their history is brief, their story is instructive, and the lesson taught will long be remembered.

Under the territorial government, three banks were chartered: one at Shawneetown, one at Edwardsville and one at Cairo. There was also a bank at Kaskaskia. Of the latter, it is needless now to speak; it issued no bills, and of course defrauded no man. We regret our inability to say as much in favor of the others. When these banks were chartered, the

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* *See Chapter* XXIII, Brown's History of Illinois, p. 428. New York, J. Winchester, *1844.*

whole population of the state was less than 30,000—a bank for every 10,000 souls. At that rate, Illinois ought now to have fifty banks and upward; and were the losses occasioned by each, to be in the same ratio as before, a part of such losses only would finish the canal.

The bank of Cairo, like the town in which it was located, existed for several years merely in imagination. It was revived in 1836, by speculating men for speculating purposes; flourished, for a short time, with various success, and, at last, like the lamp in its socket, went out of itself and peaceably expired. Its charter was repealed on the 4th of March, 1843.

The banks at Shawneetown and Edwardsville, became deposit banks, and received the public monies arising from the sale of public lands in Illinois, and converted it to their use. The former, accounted in whole or in part; the latter, never. A suit was afterward brought by the United States against the latter, and a judgment for $54,000 obtained. No part of it, however, has been collected.

The bank at Shawneetown was incorporated on the 28th of December, 1816, by the name and style of "the president, directors and company, of the Bank of Illinois." Its capital, at first, was $300,000, one-third of which was reserved to be subscribed by the state. It was chartered for twenty years, or until the 1st of January, 1837. It commenced business immediately, and, by the aid of government deposits, acquired an extensive credit, issued and redeemed its bills for several years, and paid specie as late as August, 1821, a considerable time after the Kentucky banks had failed. It finally yielded to the force of circumstances, and settled or compounded with government for its deposits, and remained dormant till the 12th of February, 1835, when an act was passed by the legislature, extending its charter for twenty years after the 1st of January, 1837. The bank was required to pay into the state treasury, for state purposes, one-half of 1 per cent annually, on its capital stock, and in consideration therefor, was exempted from further taxation.

On the 4th of March, 1837, another act was passed, for increasing its capital stock $1,400,000, all of which was to be subscribed by the state, (the bank consenting thereto;) and in order to raise the necessary funds, state bonds were issued, and the faith of the state was pledged for their payment, with interest, in 1860.

The constitution, adopted on the 26th of August, 1818, declared, that there shall be no other banks or monied institutions in Illinois, but those already provided by law, except a state bank and its branches. It became desirable, therefore, for the legislature (as was then supposed) to receive the Shawneetown bank into close communion, (when its charter was renewed,) to aid the gigantic system of internal improvements about to be commenced.

On the 22d of March, 1819, a bank was incorporated, by the name and style of the "president, directors and company, of the State Bank of Illinois," to continue for twenty-five years, with a capital not exceeding $4,000,000—a real mammoth, considering our wealth and population—one-half of which was to be subscribed by individuals, and the other half by the state, when "the legislature, thereof, should deem it proper."

No attempts having been made to set this mammoth institution agoing, the charter was repealed at the next session of the legislature, in 1821, and another bank chartered in lieu of it, with a capital of $500,000, to

be owned by the state, and to be managed and superintended by the legislature.

The act was entitled "an act establishing the State Bank of Illinois." It was a singular specimen of legislation, and deserves, therefore, to be fully considered. The legislature, like others elsewhere preceding it, was actuated apparently by the impression, that paper money could be made to supply every financial want. During the American revolution, when continental money for the first time was issued, to doubt its value or its final redemption, was exceedingly hazardous. It implied a want of patriotism, and many, smarting under the appellation of tories and speculators, had their stores forcibly broken open, and their goods sold at limited prices, by committees of their neighborhood.

When the army of the revolution was destitute of food and raiment, and almost perishing from want, a patriotic old lady, it is said, exclaimed: "What a shame it is, that Congress should let the poor soldiers suffer, when they have power to make just as much money as they choose!" The paper money of Russia, issued by the emperor, and predicated on taxes—the assignats of France, during the reign of terror and the throes and convulsions of anarchy—the paper money of some of the American states, when colonies of England—the Mississippi scheme of John Law, and the South sea bubble, in England, all of which were "parts of one stupendous whole," ought to have taught our legislature wisdom. The times, however, were perilous. Corn, in 1824, was sold at Cincinnati, for ten cents a bushel; wheat, from twenty-five, down to twelve and a half cents; flour, at Pittsburgh, was, at that time, a dollar per barrel; other produce in the same ratio. A bushel and a half of wheat would buy a pound of coffee; a barrel of flour would buy a pound of tea; and twelve and a half barrels of flour, a yard of superfine cloth. The legislature of Ohio, had passed a law to prevent property from being sold on execution, unless it would bring a certain amount to be fixed by appraisers. Kentucky also adopted "the relief system," and stay laws and replevin acts followed in quick succession. Commonwealth banks, or state loan offices, issued their thousands and their millions; and the creditor had no alternative, but to receive it in payment of his debts, or to await the arrival of better times.

Governor Adair, in his annual message to the legislature of Kentucky, said, that "the paramount law of necessity" had compelled the legislature to adopt measures, against which much could be said; but added, that "a half million of agitated and endangered people had been thus tranquillized, without the infliction of legal justice or the example of violated morality.

In the history of nations, as well as of individuals, there are occasional moments of frenzy, in which every movement baffles all human calculations. The politician, the moralist and the philosopher, are equally surprised. The court of appeals, in Kentucky, immediately declared the relief laws unconstitutional. The people at once divided into two great political parties upon the subject, and the contest was carried on with extraordinary violence. A new court of appeals was established, and the relief laws declared constitutional; and in a few years thereafter, when a sudden *and unexpected* change came over the scene, preparations were made to *defend the records* of the new court with powder and ball. In 1828, the

friends of the old court obtained a majority in the legislature, and the whole system was abandoned.

The relief system, it was then conceded, did not effect the object intended—did not produce an equitable adjustment of the affairs of debtor and creditor. In every age of the world, that relation has been one of deep solicitude. In a savage state, it is of but little consequence, because where there is but little wealth, there is no theatre for its display. As soon, however, as man begins to accumulate, and form associations other than what mutual dependence and common danger require, wealth becomes important, and the desire for its accumulation, a prominent feature in our character. Hence, the relation between debtor and creditor, and hence, too, its importance.

It is, however, to be hoped, that so long as a sense of justice shall animate the councils of our nation—so long as our eagle shall maintain its ascendency in her sky, and the American flag wave in triumph on her shores, no temporary expedients will again be resorted to.

By the act last referred to, a bank was created, to continue for ten years, with a capital of $500,000, known and distinguished by the name and style of "the president and directors of the State Bank of Illinois." Four branches were established: one in Madison county, at Edwardsville; one at Brownville, in Jackson county; one at Shawneetown, in Gallatin county; and one at the seat of justice, in Edwards county. In addition to the above branches, there was the principal bank also. The president and directors were elected by the Senate and House of Representatives, on a joint ballot; six directors for the principal bank, and five for each of the branches. The cashiers were appointed by a majority of the directors. Its officers were authorized to procure plates, &c., and $2,000 out of the public treasury were appropriated to defray the expenses. The plates, like those of the Mormon prophet, constituted all of its capital; $300,000, in bills, were directed to be issued, and distributed in the several districts, in proportion to the population of each. These bills were to be loaned on notes, with mortgage security, and no individual was entitled to a loan for more than $1,000. The notes issued by the bank, bore an interest of 2 per cent per annum; and the person who effected the loan, paid 6 per cent interest upon his note and mortgage. Its bills were receivable, in payment of taxes, and all debts due to the state, to any county, and to the bank. The notes given for money, were loaned, payable in one year; and on paying 10 per cent of the principal, the maker was entitled to a renewal of his note; and so on, from year to year, until the expiration of the charter, at which time the whole was to be paid. The president of the principal bank, was to have a standing accommodation of $2,000, on paying 2 per cent therefor, and giving adequate security. The president of each branch, $1,000, and each director $750. The cashiers were to receive a salary not exceeding $800 each.

The twenty-third section of the act, is in these words:—

"Be it further enacted, That all the lands, town lots and other property, belonging to the state, and all the funds, and all the revenue, which now is, or may hereafter become payable to the state, shall be, and the same are hereby pledged for the redemption of the notes and bills, which may be *issued* by virtue of this act. And the people of the state of Illinois, *by their representatives in* the general assembly, convened, do hereby pledge *themselves, at, or before the expiration* of the said ten years, recited in the first section,

and before the final dissolution of this institution, to redeem all such notes and bills as may be presented to them, in gold or silver coins."

The twenty-seventh section of the act, is in these words:—

"Be it further enacted, That no execution shall issue on any judgment, or replevy bond, now in force, or which shall be hereafter rendered, or entered into, until the 1st day of November next. And all executions which shall thereafter issue on judgments, now existing, or that shall be rendered on existing causes of action, or on causes of action which shall accrue before the 1st day of May next, or on contracts entered into before the 1st day of May next, may be replevied for three years from the date of the levy of the execution, unless the plaintiff or the plaintiffs, by him, her, or themselves or agents, shall endorse on the back of the execution, 'That the notes or bills, of the State Bank of Illinois, or of either of its branches, will be received in discharge of the execution.'"

By the thirty-fourth section, certain judgments were required to be entered, "payable in the notes or bills of the State Bank of Illinois;" and by the thirty-fifth section, the school fund, and all specie or land-office money, were required to be paid into the principal bank.

The whole resources of the state, its credit, its capital and its honor, were thus concentrated in this single institution. It had hardly commenced business, before its bills fell to seventy cents on the dollar, and soon thereafter to fifty. They at length fell to twenty-five cents, when they ceased to circulate.

No specie, or none of consequence, was received at the principal bank, or any of its branches.* A currency, composed entirely of irredeemable paper, flooded the country, and expelled the precious metals. The destruction of public and private credit, national torpor, individual ruin, disgraceful legislation and the prostration of morals, followed of course. The above is a mere outline of the calamities that succeeded. Nothing was seen but a boundless expanse of desolation. Wealth impoverished, enterprise checked, the currency depreciated, and all that was indicative of public and private prosperity plunged, apparently, into the vortex of ruin. The farmer had no incentive to industry or exertion. The efforts of the merchant were fruitless, and the energies of the state, to all appearance, were temporarily annihilated. The guilty authors, however, of the mischief, escaped with impunity; while the innocent, the unsuspecting and uncorrupted, were plundered without necessity and without mercy.

This was in a time of peace. It cannot, however, be pretended, that the state bank was the cause of all the misfortunes that followed; it was rather their effect. The difficulties had commenced, previous to its incorporation. The remedy, it is true, was worse than the disease; and instead of healing, it excited the wound, postponed the cure and prolonged the agony.

A special law was afterward passed, to pay the officers of government their salaries in depreciated paper, at its then market price. The members of the legislature received, on one occasion, nine dollars per day for their services. This, of course, became a debt against the state for its whole amount, for the payment of which, its faith and its honor were irrevocably pledged; and when Wiggins made a loan to the state of Illinois, of $100,000—all of which has since been paid in good faith, and with in-

* *At one of the* branches, but two dollars in specie were received, both of which were *preserved as curiosities.*

terest—a considerable portion of the $100,000 was received from him at par, which had been paid out at fifty cents per dollar. The case is assimilated to one who sells his own notes at 50 per cent discount, and redeems them afterward at par; or, like the market-woman, who, having sold her wares considerably below their cost, and being asked how she made her profits, said, "it was by the amount of her sales." The state or the individual, who acts thus, must, we apprehend, do a vast deal of business before he will be rich.

The failure of all the banks which had hitherto existed, and the losses which had been sustained, were remembered for some months, and some say, even for years. Emigration, however, began to increase, and property to rise in value. The cupidity of white men saw, and coveted the rich lands on the Upper Mississippi. They had already been ceded to the United States, but the Indians were permitted to enjoy them until they were required for use. A war with Black Hawk, was, therefore, provoked.

Nothing, perhaps, diffuses civilization more rapidly, than the march of armies, (civilized armies, we mean, not barbarous hordes.) Roman civilization kept pace with the flight of her eagles. English civilization has done the same. And in our own country, the establishment of a military post, is a signal for its whole population to advance.

When Black Hawk was making a triumphant tour through the Atlantic cities, in 1833, the sturdy emigrants at the west, unwilling that his broad acres should be converted into a waste, planted them with corn. Others followed in their rear; and when the savage war-whoop yielded to the bugle's blast, hundreds and thousands of speculators preceded, and followed by an industrious population, resorted to northern Illinois, and the South sea bubble, the Mississippi scheme and the speculations in Maine, were reacted in our very midst.

An English historian once described Chicago, and other towns and villages in its neighborhood; to that description we have nothing to add. Although written of a century and upward since, it would seem as if some modern town had then "sat for her picture."

In 1835, the reign of speculation commenced, and as bank and speculation went hand in hand, like Adam and Eve as they departed from paradise, the charter of the Shawneetown bank was extended, as we have already remarked, for twenty years; and a new state bank, on the 12th of February, 1835, was incorporated, by the name of the "president, directors and company, of the State Bank of Illinois." Its capital, at first, consisted of $1,500,000, with the right to increase it another $1,000,000; the state was to become a partner, and to have $100,000 of its stock. On the 4th of March, 1837, an addition of $2,000,000 was made to its capital, all of which was subscribed by the state. The bank and the state were now firmly united, but whether the bank or the state profited or suffered most by the alliance, it is difficult to determine. Their love for each other, was like the love of Master Slender for Mistress Anne Page, in Shakspeare, "not great in the beginning, and it pleased heaven to decrease it upon better acquaintance, when they had more occasion to know one another." Its charter was to continue till the 1st of February, 1860, and the bank was required to pay a bonus to the state annually, of half of 1 per *cent, in lieu of all taxes* and impositions whatever. Previous to *this time, on the 16th of January*, 1836, a law was passed authorizing

the bank to establish three new branches, in addition to the six originally contemplated. The time for redeeming its paper in specie, without forfeiting its charter, was extended also from ten to fifty days; and as a consideration therefor, the bank was to redeem the loan, commonly called "the Wiggins loan," made by authority of the state, on the 29th of January, 1831, together with the interest which might thereafter accrue on said loan.

By the act of 1837, the fund commissioners were authorized to subscribe the $2,000,000 of stock, and to issue $2,000,000 in bonds, for the purpose of raising money to pay for such investment. Difficulties soon began to thicken around the bank. Some of its loans were made to irresponsible persons, esteemed perfectly good when made, but found afterward to be otherwise. The speculating mania in the country having ceased, and many of its debtors becoming insolvent, the bank, of course, participated in their reverses; and, on the 21st of July, 1837, an act was passed to authorize the suspension of specie payments, on condition, however, that the bank should conform to, and comply with, certain terms therein enumerated. These terms were:—

1st. The bank was restricted from making a dividend till it resumed specie payment.

2d It was prohibited from selling, disposing of or paying out, any of its specie, except for change, and in sums under five dollars.

3d. It was to make monthly returns, &c., of its condition.

4th. It was forbidden to increase its circulation beyond the amount of its capital paid in.

5th. It was required to receive and pay out, any funds belonging to the state, free of charge.

6th. Citizens and merchants of the state, on paying 10 per cent on the principal of any notes, were entitled to have them renewed.

7th. The violation of any of the above provisions, exposed the bank to a forfeiture of its charter.

Under the operation of this law, the bank lingered along till the 24th of January, 1843, when, by a legislative act, it went into liquidation.

On the 27th of February, 1841, another act was passed to save the forfeiture of the charter of the Bank of Illinois, at Shawneetown. Certain conditions, however, were imposed; and, among others, that the bank should buy $200,000 of state bonds, at par, the avails of which, should be applied to the redemption of internal improvement bonds, hypothecated by the fund commissioners, and to the payment of interest on state indebtedness, other than to said bank. On the 3d of March, 1843, the bank at Shawneetown went also into liquidation.*

The question has frequently been asked, whether the protection given by the state to the banks, was of service to the latter? The state had borrowed, and was indebted largely to each, for monies advanced on the faith and credit of the state. The banks were delinquent, and could not, therefore, look danger in the face. They complied with unreasonable terms, probably on that account. The state and the bank were, therefore, in all probability, "a mutual curse" to each other; and the protec-

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* *This forced* loan of $200,000, which would of course require the issuing of $200,000 *in bills, or the abstraction* of so much from its available means, was not calculated to sustain *an institution on the verge of bankruptcy.*

tion which the former gave the latter, was like that which "vultures give to lambs," covering and devouring them.

On the 24th of January, 1843, an act was passed "to diminish the state debt, and put the state bank into liquidation." The title of the act is somewhat extraordinary. That, however, is of but little consequence if the object be just and reasonable. Some pills, we are told, require gilding to be palatable.

On the 25th of February, 1843, an act was passed to put the Bank of Illinois, (at Shawneetown,) into liquidation. Some of its provisions are also extraordinary.*

After providing for the appointment of three commissioners, the 4th section of the act requires "the said commissioners, or either of them, immediately after they shall have been qualified as aforesaid, to proceed to Shawneetown, and to any other place where the said bank has a branch, and shall then and there take possession of the banking-house of said bank and branches, and also of all the goods and chattels, title-papers, credits, effects, cash and bank bills, belonging to said bank, wheresoever the same may be found."

The 5th section of the act requires the sheriff, &c., "to assist said commissioner or commissioners, and to call to his aid the power of the county, &c.; and if any officer or agent of the bank, or any other person or persons, shall wilfully resist or hinder, or in any wise obstruct the said commissioner or commissioners, or any other person or persons, called to his or their aid, as aforesaid, in performing any of their duties, imposed upon them by the act, he, she or they, shall be deemed guilty of felony, and on conviction thereof, they shall be imprisoned in the penitentiary for a term not exceeding ten years."

The Bank of Illinois, (at Shawneetown,) had been incorporated for several years; had done a large amount of business; had dealt extensively with the state; had performed all the duties which the legislature had required of it; and many individuals had embarked "their little all" in its stock. The bank, however, had yielded to the force of circumstances, and, like others, had suspended specie payments. The legislature, thereupon, without a trial, without a judicial investigation, appointed commissioners, and directed them to proceed immediately to Shawneetown, to take possession of the banking-house and its effects, the notes, the money, and everything belonging to it, and in case its officers resisted said commissioners in doing so, the whole power of the county was to be summoned to their aid; and the officers of the bank, their agents and every other person, even stockholders, whose means of living were all concentrated in its vaults, by this law were declared to be felons, and subjected to imprisonment in the penitentiary, "for a term not exceeding ten years."

The king of England, when the Star Chamber was in all its glory—the autocrat of all the Russias—the turbaned Turk, from whose cimeter the truth of Mohammed's creed had flashed on prostrate nations—would have paused ere they sanctioned an act like this. Fortunately, however, for

* This act, though passed the 25th of February, 1843, was not to be in force until the 3d of March following, and was, therefore, regarded by many, as a kind of "ruse de guerre" to bring the bank to terms. Another act being afterward passed, it became inoperative. *That circumstance, however, ought not to withdraw our attention from some of its provisions.*

the honor and credit of the state, before any action was had in relation to the several matters above referred to, the law was suspended in its operation, and another act passed upon the subject which has since gone quietly into operation.

The 4th article in the amendment of the constitution of the United States, which provides that "the right of the people to be secure in their persons, houses, papers and effects, against unreasonable searches and seizures, shall not be violated;" and the 7th article in the constitution of this state, declaring "that the people shall be secure in their persons, houses, papers and possessions, from unreasonable searches and seizures;" and the 8th article in said constitution, which declares that "no freeman shall be disseized of his freehold, or in any manner deprived of his property, but by the judgment of his peers or the law of the land," was thus preserved from violation.

On the 4th of March, 1843, an act was passed "to repeal the charter of the Bank of Cairo." We merely state the fact, because we find it of record, without commenting on the legislative right to repeal charters, that being at present out of our province. The bank, however, was, at the time, useless; and its annihilation, in some way or other, was consequently demanded.

On the 25th of February, 1843, an act was passed "to reduce the public debt $1,000,000, and to put the Bank of Illinois into liquidation." The title to this act is liable to the same objection as the other. That, however, is of but little importance. Other principles and other considerations, are involved; and however reluctant we are to enter into a discussion of those principles, a regard to historic truth renders it imperative. Witnesses in courts of justice, are required to tell not only "the truth," but "the whole truth;" and sins "of omission," are sometimes equally heinous with those "of commission."

The 7th section of the act "to diminish the state debt, and put the state bank into liquidation," is in these words:—

"Section 7. The State Bank of Illinois shall, within three days after the passage of this act, signify its acceptance of the provisions of this act, by writing, signed by the president and cashier, under the seal of the bank, and to be filed in the office of the secretary of state. And the said bank shall, within five days after the passage of this act, deliver to the governor acting in behalf of the state, an amount of state bonds, scrip, and other evidences of debt, without interest, equal on their face to the sum of $2,050,000, reported by the bank to be on hand, on the 1st of December, 1842; in which event, the governor is hereby authorized, on the part of the state, to assign to the bank, $2,050,000 of bank stock, owned by the state in said bank; and all the interest of the state in the assets of the bank, real, personal and mixed, except so much of the assets as the state may be entitled to, as the holder of $50,000 of the stock of said bank; in which event, also, the directors in said bank, except the commissioner aforesaid, shall be withdrawn."

The 1st section of the act "to reduce the public debt $1,000,000, and to put the Bank of Illinois into liquidation, is in these words:—

"Section 1. The governor shall be authorized to negotiate a sale of the stock held by the state in the Bank of Illinois, to said bank upon the following terms: That is to say, that the bank shall surrender to the governor, for the use of the state, as an equivalent for said stock, an amount of the liabilities of the state, equal on their face to the sum of $1,000,000; one-half of said amount to be surrendered as aforesaid, within five days after the passage of this act, and the residue, with 6 per cent interest thereon, from the date of sale within twelve months after the passage hereof."

The 17th section of the act, last aforesaid, is in the words following:—

"Section 17. If the bank shall accept of the foregoing provisions of this act, and shall go into liquidation as aforesaid, then, and in that case, the provisions of an act entitled 'an act to put the Bank of Illinois into liquidation,' shall be suspended for, and during the term of five years, from and after the 4th day of March, 1843, and no longer; and for the purpose of enabling the bank to signify such acceptance, and to go into liquidation as aforesaid, the operations of the provisions of this act, the title of which is above recited, shall be, and the same are hereby suspended for the period of thirty days, from and after the passage hereof."

When the state bank was incorporated, the private stockholders, especially the small ones, paid in cash the whole amount of their stock. When the state became a partner, instead of paying cash for her stock, she gave her bonds for $3,100,000, and authorized their sale to raise the necessary funds. When the state became a stockholder in the Bank of Illinois, at Shawneetown, she gave her bonds in lieu of money. The Bank of Illinois sold a portion of these bonds when the credit of the state was current, and received their full value. This furnished, of course, a part of her capital. Whether the State Bank of Illinois did the like, we are unadvised. The bonds of the state, being in New York and in London, and "as plenty as blackberries," in both places, and being the sport of brokers, of bankers and of bankrupts, it is difficult to ascertain whether the bonds given up in 1843 to be cancelled, were the same that were issued in 1837. The acts before referred to, require "an amount of state bonds, scrip, or other evidences of debt." If the bonds issued in 1837, were sold at par, as they might have been, and as several millions in fact were; and others purchased at thirty, forty or fifty cents upon the dollar—when the credit of the state had fallen so low—a speculation either was, or might have been made, of $1,000,000 or $2,000,000, by the bank or its officers, by individuals or speculators. Whether such was, or was not the fact, we neither assert nor deny, having no evidence to predicate a charge of that nature upon, or to repel it.

In 1843, when the State Bank and the Bank of Illinois went into liquidation, their bills were worth in market about 50 per cent. They had, at that time, a large amount of state bonds, and state indebtedness on hand. They had a large amount of debts, good, bad and indifferent, due them—several thousand acres of land, which they had received in satisfaction of judgments, obtained in favor of the banks against individuals. The State Bank had also a banking-house at Springfield, erected at an expense of some $50,000, after the bank had suspended payment.

It is not singular, therefore, that public indignation should have been excited against the banks; nor is it strange that such indignation should have reached our legislative halls.*

Some doubts have recently been expressed, whether the cancelling of $3,050,000 of state bonds, and the transfer of an equal amount of bank stock by legislative acts, was doing justice to the billholders, or to the stockholders who had paid cash in full for their stock, while the state, like other speculating stockholders in eastern cities, had given her bonds or stock notes only; it becomes as imperative upon us as upon a grand juror, to speak "without fear, favor, affection or hope of reward," upon the subject.

That the cancelling of so much of our public debt was desirable, all

* Notwithstanding *the apparent severity* which characterizes the several acts above *mentioned, it is more than probable that* the billholders and the stockholders are gainers *by their operation. That the speculators* are, there can be no doubt.

admit. That it was expedient, if it could be done without a sacrifice of principle, is admitted also. Expediency, however, is a dangerous word, especially in legislative bodies. Its banners, as Burke once said of the French revolutionists, are too frequently stolen from the altar of God, and its allies congregated from the abyss of hell."

The same question was once agitated in a public assembly at Athens, and a decision was thereupon had against the doctrine of expediency. Although the proceedings of an Athenian assembly, we admit, are not of high authority, "its fierce democracy" having been, as we are informed, ruled and governed at times by demagogues, lessons may be learned from its history replete with instruction.

Aristides, who, during his whole life, was exceedingly poor—notwithstanding he held some of the highest offices in the state, and was the friend and companion of Alexander and Pausanias, of Miltiades and Themistocles—by a series of virtuous actions, had acquired the name of "the Just." Themistocles, whose reputation for integrity was not equally apparent, (although Napoleon cites him for a model,) having once said in a public assembly at Athens, "that he had thought of an expedient which would be salutary to the state, but its success would depend upon its being kept a secret," was commanded to submit it to Aristides, and to abide his decision.

Aristides, having heard Themistocle's proposal, returned to the assembly and said, that "nothing could be more advantageous than the project of Themistocles, and at the same time, nothing could be more unjust."

Themistocles was thereupon ordered to abandon his scheme. It is needless, perhaps, to inform our readers, that the project of Themistocles was to burn the fleet, "not the bonds,"* of the confederates, (allies and friends of the republic,) to secure the ascendency of Athens.

'Tis needless, perhaps, to say more in relation to our bonds. They have been destroyed by the joint action of the bank and the legislature, and our debt has thus been reduced $3,050,000.†

Had those bonds been the notes of individuals, given for stock in 1837, and lain dormant in the bank till it became insolvent, and had they been given up by the bank to be cancelled on the assignment of so much stock, in an institution acknowledged to be bankrupt, Judge Lynch‡ would have erected his throne on Capitol Square, in Springfield; a thousand jurors, without a summons, would have appeared at his bar; a sentence of condemnation would have been pronounced against the stockholders, and the officers thus offending; and, in less time than was consumed in destroying the Bastile, the banking-house at Springfield, erected at so much expense, would have been levelled with the dust—not one stone would have been left upon another.

The act, however, was a legislative act. The people were interested in the reduction of the debt, and truth and justice were drowned by "mock hosannas to the Son of David."

Men, in their corporate capacity, do that of which, as individuals, they would be ashamed. Lord Coke, in speaking of corporations, said "they had no souls, and therefore could not be excommunicated." There is,

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* *The state bonds* were afterward burned on the capitol square, in Springfield.

† *Fifty thousand* dollars of stock, is still held by the state.

‡ *Judge Lynch's* courts have been described too often, to require a definition here, or a description of the "*modus operandi*" in these courts.

however, a bar, to which legislators are amenable—the bar of public opinion; and, although public opinion may sometimes be wrong, "its sober second thought" is generally right. The legislature of Georgia once burned their records, and the legislature of Illinois may, perhaps, yet profit by their example.

The above remarks are not intended as an apology for the banks. Our experience in banking has been unfortunate. A want of capital, in some instances, and a want of integrity in others, (not but that many excellent men—men of principle and character, have been thus engaged,) have subjected this community to more than they can bear. The bubble has burst, and left nothing but "ruins and demagogues."

Banks, in many cases, are a public convenience. Bills are preferable, frequently, to specie. The millions, however, which have been lost by fraud and by counterfeiting, will long be remembered. Those losses have seldom happened to the wary. The broker, the speculator and the man who deals in his thousands, are seldom "their victims." The hard laboring man, the unwary, the credulous and those living remote from towns and cities, are generally the sufferers. The duty of the legislature to protect the latter is imperative.

Whatever, therefore, may be the action of the legislature hereafter, in relation to the State Bank or to banking generally, the protection of those whose circumstances require its aid, will, it is hoped, now and forever, be the objects of its watchful care.*

Art. VI.—MERCANTILE BIOGRAPHY.

BRIEF NOTICES OF MERCHANTS, DISTINGUISHED IN THE EARLY OR REVOLUTIONARY HISTORY OF THE COUNTRY.

THOMAS C. AMORY.

Thomas C. Amory, was a citizen of Boston, and educated for the profession and business of a merchant. His father and others of the name, were merchants of high standing and extensive business; and it is no small praise to say of any one, of whom it may be said with truth, that he was one of the first class of merchants in that place. For several generations, the Boston merchants have been of high and honorable characters. They were industrious, enterprising and honest, in their dealings. They have made money, but most of them made it honestly. Their style of living was not so expensive and extravagant as at present; but there was convenience, comfort and competency, in their dwellings, at the social board and in their general manner of living. Thomas C. Amory, ranked among the most honorable merchants in Boston, forty years ago. He died in 1812, at the age of forty-five. There were, indeed, many others, who were highly esteemed for their probity and fair dealing, and who, at the same time, gradually accumulated large estates. Mr. Amory was particularly beloved by his intimate acquaintances, for his upright and benevolent conduct, and for the manifestation of the social affections.

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* *The History of Illinois, from its First Discovery and Settlement to the Present Time. By Henry Brown, Counsellor at Law.* New York, J. Winchester.

He died in the career of successful business, and surrounded by the endearments of family connections. Jonathan Amory was a younger brother of the former, and had a degree in Harvard College, in 1787. He engaged in mercantile pursuits, and was greatly esteemed for probity and fair dealing, for benevolent and honorable feelings.

HON. JONATHAN BELCHER.

JONATHAN BELCHER was governor of Massachusetts about ten years, from 1730 to 1740. He was a native of Boston, and his father was a citizen of great wealth and respectability, a friend to religion, an honorable merchant and an honorable counsellor. The son received his public education in Harvard College, where he took his first degree in 1699. He was a good scholar, and had quite a literary taste, but gave his attention to trade and commerce, as his father had done, and not without success. Mr. Belcher early visited Europe, and became acquainted with literary and political characters of influence. When he returned to Boston, he resumed his business as a merchant, but took an interest in political affairs; was chosen a representative from Boston, and afterwards had a seat at the council. In 1730, Mr. Belcher succeeded Governor Burnet as chief magistrate of Massachusetts.

Burnet was not very popular, and had a long dispute with the House of Representatives respecting his salary. Belcher had again visited England, and when he found that Burnet would probably not be continued in office, he applied for it through his friends and received the appointment. At first, the people were pleased that a native of the province was to be their governor; but he had a similar dispute with the general court as his predecessors had. Mr. Belcher was also governor of New Hampshire, that province being included in his commission for Massachusetts. He opposed the issue of paper money, in 1733, and that rendered him obnoxious to speculators and bankrupts. At a later period, he was appointed governor of New Jersey, and removed to that colony in the year 1739. He died in 1757, at the age of seventy-six, and was greatly lamented for his many virtues and useful public services. He was esteemed as a pious man, and some thought him an enthusiast. He was a great admirer of Whitfield.

HON. THOMAS CUSHING.

THOMAS CUSHING received his first degree in Harvard College, 1744. He soon after engaged in trade, and was a respectable merchant in Boston, then a place of commerce with foreign countries, and the largest seaport in New England. In the year 1761, he was chosen a member of the general court, in Massachusetts, for Boston, and elected speaker the first year he held a seat in the assembly. His father, who was also a very respectable inhabitant of Boston, occupied that station twenty-seven years before. Mr. Cushing, the son, was one of the representatives of Boston for fourteen years, till the revolution, and most of the time presided in the house. He had much influence with his fellow-citizens, and with the members of the general court; and yet he did not rank with Otis, or S. or J. Adams, in political knowledge or in public debate. The *people had great* confidence in his patriotism, at the critical period of *1764–'74, for* he was decided and judicious. The ministerial party of *those years, did* not indeed fear him so much as they did the other patriots

just mentioned. In 1774, he was one of the five delegates from Massachusetts, chosen to attend a Continental Congress to consult on measures for the preservation of the rights and liberties of the British North American colonies, then assailed by an arbitrary administration in England. He was also returned as a member of that august assembly, for several succeeding years. When the Constitution of Massachusetts was adopted, in 1780, Mr. Cushing was chosen lieutenant-governor; and re-elected in 1781 and 1782. His station entitled him to respect, and he was esteemed as a sincere patriot and an honest merchant. Like most of the patriots of that period, he was a public professor of religion; and his life corresponded to his faith and profession. He died in 1788, at the age of sixty-five.

HON. TRISTRAM DALTON.

Tristram Dalton was a citizen of Newburyport, and born in that vicinity. He prepared for college under Master Moody, the able teacher in Byfield Academy, and was graduated at Harvard University, in 1755. He studied law, but early engaged in commercial pursuits. In the political dispute with England, he ranked among the whigs of the day, and was one of the leading patriots in the county of Essex, though there were many choice spirits in that part of the province. He was often elected to the House of Representatives and the Senate of Massachusetts, and was also a member of the Continental Congress and of the Senate of the United States. In all these important stations, he had the character of an able and faithful public servant. He was also distinguished for his courtesy and polished manners, and he paid more attention to dress than great men usually do; but, perhaps, more attention was bestowed on dress and manners, sixty and seventy years ago, than at present. It seems to have been expected of men of wealth and in public office. The opinion of Addison probably then prevailed, that neatness was nearly allied to the moral virtues. Mr. Dalton had the reputation of a good general scholar, and was an original member of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences. He lived to an advanced age, and was one of the principal officers in the custom-house, in Boston, for several years near the close of his life.

HON. THOMAS DAVIS.

Thomas Davis was a native of Plymouth, Massachusetts, and was born about the year 1758. His father was concerned in trade and fishery, in that place, and though he gave one son—Hon. Judge Davis, of Boston—a collegiate education, Thomas had no better means of acquiring knowledge in his youth, than a common school, provided for children of all classes of the people. This defect, however, was in a great degree remedied, by personal application and study. With much propriety, he may be said, therefore, to be a self-taught man. Diligence, industry and sobriety, were displayed in his conduct in very early life. The business of his father, probably led him to give his attention to trade and navigation, and to subjects connected with commerce. He soon became distinguished for his information on mercantile affairs, and as an accountant; and discovered all that *accuracy, good judgment* and method, which are important *in all departments of business*, and especially in commercial pursuits. *He became concerned in navigation* and in the fisheries, and trade to the

West Indies, soon after his years were such as to render it proper he should engage in business for himself. It soon appeared that he was accumulating property, slowly, perhaps, but surely; and this is to be chiefly attributed to regular habits, to industry and diligent attention to the business in which he had engaged. And who can justly expect to accumulate property or to prosper in business, without diligence, method and persevering efforts? At an earlier age than is usual, he was chosen a representative to the general court, for his native town; and after a few years, he held a seat in the Senate, to which he was elected by his fellow-citizens, who had witnessed in his course so much good judgment, uprightness and fidelity, as to deserve their entire regard and confidence.

Mr. Davis was chosen a member of the Senate, from Plymouth county, at several annual elections, and was then appointed president of an insurance company in Boston—the second company of that character in that ancient town. In this station, he was continued till his death, in 1805, at the age of forty-eight. Few men in the community, during the last generation, were so much esteemed and confided in, as Mr. Davis. He was accurate, judicious and faithful, in the various stations which he occupied. The interests of others might be entrusted to him with perfect assurance of his care and fidelity; and his conduct, both in public and private, furnish an example which may be safely followed, and fully prove that, by diligence, sobriety and integrity, a young man may justly expect a competency, if not great wealth, and will certainly secure the esteem and respect of his fellow men.

Art. VII.—THE NATURE AND EFFECT OF PROTECTIVE TARIFFS.

The report of a bill in Congress, at the last session, to modify the tariff law of 1842, offers a timely opportunity to present some inquiries in regard to the nature of protective tariffs, and their effect upon the industry in the development of the resources of the country.

Although not among those who heartily approved of the tariff of 1842, we had some faint hopes that, subject as we might be to some inconvenience and oppression thereby, our revived business prosperity would not so soon fall into the disarrangement ever caused by a change of policy in government. Such changes are particularly to be lamented on account of their moral influence. Small and sure gains, make industrious, frugal and persevering men. Interfere with these, and you find the weak oppressed and trodden down, while the strong grasp with reckless avidity, utterly regardless of consequences, at so much more as will be required to ensure to them a competency, if not wealth. It should be, then, the strong and earnest voice of all good citizens, that some policy be adopted by government that may have as much permanence as is consistent with the transitory character of human laws.

It is a serious question, whether the most popular theories of politicians and the restrictive systems that have at various times been adopted, are, or can be, in their nature, of this stable quality? It is no easy matter to *introduce artificial* regulations of industry and commerce, so that all *parties, all trades* and every section of our widely-diversified country, can all *and equally,* be the recipients of justice. It is not our purpose, at this

time, to show the inconsistency of partizan doctrines, or to point out the partiality of all attempts at governmental protection. There is a deeper and firmer ground to be sought for, would we find a sure basis upon which we may build a sound policy.

We look for this, only, in the natural economy of the earth. Every clime affords its peculiar contribution, to be used and exchanged for its own and the general good. In this beautiful diversity of products, we learn a lesson of deep significance which the acquaintance with artificial theories cannot efface. There is involved a condition, to supply and receive, that cannot be disregarded. It is this which binds the whole race of mankind into one great brotherhood, and renders a rapid commercial interchange of commodities requisite for the well being of the whole. Interfere with this harmony of nature's order, which provides for all nations the highest prosperity, and for individuals all the necessaries, the comforts and the luxuries of the world, and you introduce confusion in national intercourse, and inequality into the conditions of men. The simple truths of political economy are lost sight of, and the wildest vagaries, and the most inexplicable enigmas are offered in their place; while a practical refutation is going on about us, where human beings starve in the very midst of plenty.

We have no desire to indulge in Utopian theories, but we cannot rid ourselves of the impressive lesson taught by the providence of the Creator himself, nor enough deplore the short-sighted wisdom which would set this aside and substitute in its place imaginary expediency. We are in a mood even to deny, theoretically, that any government has a legitimate right to interfere with the industry of its subjects. Protect our persons, protect our rights, but, if you please, leave us to manage our own professions, and molest us not in the pursuit of honest wealth. It is, moreover, rank fallacy, to suppose that any artificial regulation of production and commerce can be of any permanent duration. Forced or encouraged out of their natural and congenial channels, endless legislating is required to sustain and regulate them. The restrictive policy has ever grown out of the difficulties and misfortunes of other nations—has been caused by short supplies, wars, revolutions and the colonization of distant states. Looking to the present condition of the world, and considering the great philanthropic projects for the civilization and amelioration of the human race, there seems little wisdom in continuing to calculate upon the frequent occurrence of scourging calamities.

The calculations, in regard to the future welfare of nations, are to be founded upon far other premises. The world is at peace. The ideas are becoming prevalent, that there is sufficient room for all men and all nations; that man may be used for other purpose than to be butchered; that he has powers that may be successfully used for his own welfare and happiness, and for the aid of his fellow man; that the welfare of the race depends much upon the well being of each and every individual. England may hold on to her odious corn laws, with increased tenacity, and retain her authority over her rebellious subjects at the point of the bayonet; China may draw closer about her that impenetrable robe of exclusiveness, and pass gradually out of existence through the stagnation that is penetrating to her very core; Spain may continue that protective policy that *is fast driving all enterprise* and progress from her shores; even *the Sandwich Islanders might impose* the duty of prohibition upon all for-

eign imports, and smack, with increased zest, their rancid whale-oil, hew on with their stone hatchets, poke the earth with their rude wooden utensils, cover their nakedness with uncouth woven mats, and stride about their little domains with the pride of conscious independence; yet we prophecy that all such restrictions of commerce are ultimately destined to be abolished, and when viewed in the history of the past, will have the appearance of lingering remnants of barbarisms that are now fast disappearing from the earth before the march of improvement of the race.

As we have before stated, we stand in fear of all sudden changes in the policy of government. Many evils can be more easily tolerated than the direful disarrangement that invariably follows the hasty adoption of new, or the abolition of old systems. Yet we cannot blind ourselves to that liberal policy which is certain to be brought about by the increase of general intelligence, the world at peace, the progress of the arts, and the more frequent communication of all nations. This state is to be prepared for, and of all governments now existing, it accords with admirable propriety with the spirit of ours to take the lead. Is there really so much to fear? If we are not utterly mistaken in our notions of this matter, that nation which soonest founds its policy upon the natural economy of the world, will be the first to reap its rich fruits. In the nearest approach to this great practical truth, we have some idea of what may be. It is the voice of all history and all experience, that trade has been most prosperous where it has been most free. When repressed by restrictions, we have seen it avoid the most fertile and best situated countries, and flee to some barren coast that boasted not of custom-houses and prohibitions. An eloquent writer has said—"It was free trade that reared the splendors of Tyre upon a miserable islet; that raised the glories of Palmyra in the midst of a sandy desert; that built the marble palaces and churches of Venice upon shoals which scarcely rise above the surface of the Adriatic; that fixed wealth and letters upon the frowning rocks of Amalfi; and that so overflowed the marshes of Holland with riches and inhabitants, that the latter built their fine cities upon piles, and encroached upon the domain of the ocean."

No principle of political economy, in fact, is more undoubtedly true than this,—that the resources of a nation will be most rapidly developed, and its prosperity built upon the surest basis, by the absence of all interference of government with its commerce and industry.

It is true that the wealth and prosperity of a nation is hereafter to depend very much upon its natural facilities. An extensive and rich territory, deep and safe harbors, lakes, navigable rivers, and great water privileges, these are indispensible. Yet the race is no longer to the Alexanders, the Neros and the Napoleons. It is to the wise, industrious and skilful. Who can discover a new compost to enrich the field, who can produce a new species of fruit or grain, who can bring the greatest power of nature to bear most economically upon human industry, who can invent the cunningest machine, who can in any way contribute to the well being and progress of the race? These, each and all, are to be the distinguished men, and these are they who will reap the richest rewards.

In this light what chance has our country in the great competition of *nations*? Favored by a broad and rich territory, stretching far over different climes, and possessing a fertility unequalled, it is no difficult matter to produce bread stuffs sufficient to feed the whole human race. Our

shores are laved by the waters of every ocean. Our navigable rivers flow deep and wide from the most inland parts. Our mountains pour down the foaming stream for the manufacturers use. Nothing seems wanting in the natural resources of our favored land. And the character of our population, too, is that best fitted to turn all facilities to use. Active, enterprising at home, known and represented abroad. Where is the land that has not been seen and trodden upon by Americans, where the sea that has not been navigated by American ships? Can we be told of any chance for discovery or speculation, that multitudes of our countrymen are not ready at once to enter upon? All things are to be proved, if all do not afford a profit. Our national character may be derided by foreign tourists, who have not the capacity to comprehend it, merely because we are ignorant of, or undervalue those artificial customs which grow out of, inequality or indolence. There is something more to be done here than to learn conventional life. We have no oppressive systems to be revolutionized, nor long festering corruptions to be eradicated. No national debt hanging like an incubus upon our prosperity. Here is real and true freedom and equality. Here is everything to encourage enterprise in individuals, every requisite to found national success.

Are we to be reminded that the rapid development of our national resources is to be attributed to the very policy that we deprecate?—that the manufactories could not have been put in operation without that protection under which they have grown so strong? It is not our purpose at this time to disapprove of all the influences from this source, although we have some doubts as to the general benefit upon the country. Certain it is, that some of the most serious changes and commercial distresses can be traced to the partial and oppressive effect of the protective system. A few years since, so large a duty was levied on cotton and woollen manufactured goods, that it amounted nearly to prohibition. The immediate consequence was, much capital and industry was transferred from its accustomed channels to manufacturing. There followed a host of attendant evils on this change. The deserting of other employments, the change of habits, the oppression of those classes whose pockets furnished the means of paying for this protection of monopolies. Yankee Jonathan's wits soon taught him that this manufacturing was a game that more men could play at, and vigorously fell to. Competition reduced the price of labor and the profits of the work, and high prices lessened the consumption and demand. The manufacturer was completely hedged in by tariffs, still was he in a sinking condition, and cried out lustily for more protection. He could not stand up under the system, he could not exist without it, and failed. This was not caused by any foreign competition; it was no more than the legitimate effect of the restrictive system carried out.

We hesitate not to say that we recognise somewhat of the same features in the present state of manufacturing. The tariff of 1842 gave the business a new impulse. Capitalists moved at first with great caution, but all philosophical prudence is easily dissipated by the reports of eight, ten, and twelve per cent semi-annual dividends. Old companies make more money than they dare divide. New companies are going into operation, whose capitals are counted by millions. The demand for goods, of every description, after the past period of poverty, has created a brisk trade. It remains to be proved whether this protected industry can be

managed in such a manner as not prove its own ruin, and the cause of much trouble to all who are in any way connected with it.

We are not prepared, under the existing artificial regulations of manufactures and commerce, to declare openly, at this time, for free trade. We fear all sudden changes: but we contend for that liberalizing spirit, which looks forward to the future—to an unrestricted commercial intercourse throughout the world. As far as is consistent with the safety of our industry, let our country take the lead. Deliver us from all high protective tariffs. Favor no particular industry at the expense of other equally necessary callings. Let such duties as are levied upon foreign imports, bear equally upon all kinds of industry, and every section of the country. Encourage all commerce that will facilitate an acquaintance with all nations, that will enable us to dispose of that immense surplus of produce and manufactures that is yearly increasing in our land. Let all change in the restrictive policy be downward, in so gradual a manner as may not cause distress, but perseveringly in this direction, until, as a nation, we can rely entirely upon our great resources, and our skill and industry in their improvement, for the welfare of our people. H. J. B.

Art. VIII.—THE QUESTION FOR ACCOUNTANTS.

To the Editor of the Merchants' Magazine:—

Sir—The receipt of FORTY-THREE communications, ineffectually attempting to solve my "Question for Accountants," in your last number, has placed me in possession of the absolute existence of facts, with which I have long since been but partially impressed, namely, that the generality of our *public teachers* of book-keeping, and, as a legitimate consequence, our *private accountants*,* are lamentably deficient in a *thorough* knowledge of the theoretical laws and practical adjustment of complex accounts, more particularly those connected with partnerships and their dissolutions, &c.

This opinion is either founded in fact, or it is not. If the affirmative position be tenable, what unenviable feelings must it generate in the minds of such merchants as have noticed the article in question, particularly when they reflect, not on the *probable*, but *certain* blunderings with which their accounts must be occasionally bolstered up, in order to present plausible but erroneous *closures*, fraught with nothing more commendable than uncertain or unmeaning efforts at adjustment. If the negative, how ridiculous the assumptions of the censor.

Let none of your *generous* readers (amongst whom, I rejoice to hope, many of my courteous respondents are to be found) do me the injustice to suppose, that my object in arraigning their pretensions is to elevate my own at the expense of theirs. No, sir; my only motives at the outset were, and since have been, to ascertain, if possible, the true state of the

* The remark of our correspondent, relative to teachers and private accountants, we are disposed to consider as altogether too severe. A student of Mr. Jones, an accomplished teacher of book-keeping and penmanship, has, we may state on the authority of *Mr. Jones, solved* the question of Mr. Wright, but declines submitting it to that gentleman. *The solution of* B. Carrick or E. L. H., or both, will appear in the October number of this Magazine.—[Ed. Merchants' Magazine.]

particulars conceived, and of the facts now elicited, under the anxious hope, that erroneous conceptions, in matters so vitally important, may, by a laudable industry, supported by a praiseworthy vigilance, be speedily applied by all concerned, as the first and only proper step toward the attainment of a remedy for so pernicious an evil.

As, in all human probability, some, or any of your or my correspondents may feel disposed to controvert the justness of my opinion, whether in the premises or conclusion, I shall merely observe, that I know not a more effectual mode of testing the merits of the discrepancies, thus necessarily at issue, than that of submitting, under the *real* signature of the party so conceiving, a practical representation of his *accounts*, (apart from a *tale of his method*,) when, as a matter of course, I shall follow the precedent by exhibiting my objections on the one hand, my proofs on the other. To the result of this proposal, I am intuitively instructed to believe that your politeness will be no barrier.

To recognise, individually, the tenor of the several communications received by me on this occasion, and to comment on each, would be to trespass unnecessarily, as well as ungenerously on your valuable pages. To one gentleman, who signs himself "An Unemployed Book-keeper," my disposition must, however, undergo an exception, if for no other reason, than to acknowledge his *brief* communication, embracing *only nine* closely written and ruled pages of most appropriately selected *foolscap*, all occupied in the adjustment of what he properly denominates my "simple question!" Having, with *elaborate* skill, and with a subtile ingenuity which would have added another plume to the brow of Aristarchus himself, pointed out to my dull perception the difference between *closeing* (as he writes it) accounts and *adjusting* them; and having, with all the assumed gravity of a modern Stagyrite, shown me the "important bearing" which my indiscriminate use of these words must have on the solution of the question submitted, he winds up, by *sagaciously* informing me, that I can entertain "no hope of *closeing* my books or *haveing* them closed for me, till *I* (or somebody for me) *sells* off the merchandise on my hands, and that, too, at such a rate, as to cover my losses hitherto incurred!"

Of "An Unemployed Book-keeper," I am induced to say that he occupies his *proper position*. His *left-handed* knowledge of his once assumed profession, entitles him to no other; inasmuch, as his *debits* occasionally become his *credits*, and *vice versa*. His *wit* and his *orthography* are well chosen companions, and pronounce him at once a rare genius. The one hobbles on worn out crutches, the other totters on crazy stilts. His prudence is, however, commendable—it has taught him to conceal his proper name.

How strange that no *two* of your correspondents agree, either in details or aggregate results! The doubting, or laudably inquisitive, can be satisfied of this fact, on application to the subscriber at 219 Mulberry-street.

With great respect, I am sir, your obliged and obedient servant,

J. W. WRIGHT.

P. S. I am much gratified to be able to say that, since the above was written, I have received a correct solution to the question from a gentleman who signs himself B. Carrick, of 45 Front-street. Should no true adjustment of the *question be presented by any other of your readers before the 20th proximo, I shall* submit the accounts, correctly balanced, *both as to order and result.*

MONTHLY COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE.

The general state of affairs presents gratifying evidence of a continued advance in prosperity. All descriptions of property are apparently in an improving condition. The large moneyed institutions, and capitalists generally, experience, in the more prompt payment of interest upon mortgages, the sure evidence that industry is receiving a better reward for its labors. Since the great revulsion of 1837, when an enormous amount of loans was outstanding upon real estate, there has been a gradual concentration of that description of property into the hands of the lenders. Each successive year has found the quantity acquired by foreclosure larger than the amount sold. There are now indications that the amount of foreclosures will be sensibly diminished, and that a demand for real estate will induce a more general distribution of that description of property; because the profits of industry becoming greater, enable the owners of real estate to make their payments with promptness, and to avoid the penalty of defalcation; while, for the same reason, property becomes more valuable. The increase of manufacturing prosperity is evident, in the growth of the markets of New York for western produce. The following is an official table of the quantities and value of produce coming from other states, entered on the New York canals, from the opening of navigation to the 22d July, 1844; and the quantities and values of the same articles which had arrived at tide-water, on the 1st August:—

Produce shipped from Buffalo and Black-Rock, to July 22.			Arrived at tide-water, August 1st.		Excess arrived on the Hudson.	Excess shipp'd.
	Quantity.	*Value.*	*Quantity.*	*Value.*	*Quantity.*	*Q'ntity.*
Flour,.....bbls.	671,310	$3,020,895	908,164	$4,086,738	236,854	.....
Wheat,.....bush.	982,707	982,707	347,939	347,939	.....	634,768
Corn,.....	47,402	23,701	5,150	2,575	.....	42,252
Barley,.....	.....	.....	13,620	5,039	13,620	.....
Beef,.....bbls.	24,985	137,417	30,539	167,964	5,554	.....
Pork,.....	37,809	321,376	34,974	297,279	.....	2,835
Ashes,.....	34,460	689,200	52,577	1,051,540	18,117	.....
Butter and lard,...lbs.	4,859,044	485,904	6,645,734	664,573	1,786,890	.....
Cheese,.....	174,004	10,440	3,008,268	180,496	2,834,264	.....
Wool,.....	1,294,728	453,154	3,527,450	1,234,607	2,232,722	.....
	.....		.....		.....	.....
Total,.....	.....	$6,124,794	.....	$8,038,760	.....	.....

Out of near 1,000,000 barrels of flour and wheat arrived at tide-water, only about 100,000 barrels were of the growth of New York; whereas, in 1841, 500,000 barrels, of the growth of New York, reached tide-water. The column of the "excess arrived at tide-water," indicates that which is of the produce of this state, and is about 25 per cent of the whole quantity. At the same time, the quantities of goods going west, from New York and Boston, in exchange, are largely increasing. The effect of this improving trade is very evident upon the canal revenues of the state; which, up to August, were as follows, as compared with the previous year:—

Tolls on the New York canals, to August 1st, 1843,.....	$858,485
" " " " 1844,.....	1,137,717
Increase,.....	$279,232

The increase is classified as follows:—

On produce of western states,.....	$93,085
" New York state,.....	103,520
On goods going up the canal,.....	82,627
Total increase,.....	$279,232

The goods going up the canal, are partly for consumption in this state, and partly to go o other states, and exhibit (the figures) the improved state of business in Boston and New ork, on western account. There is no means of ascertaining what proportion of goods aying tolls at Albany and Troy, comes from Boston, over the railroad. The proportion , however, large, and constantly increasing. This western trade increased, in 1843, to considerable extent over the previous year; and the direction which it took, is seen in he following table:—

	1842. Tons.	1843. Tons.	Decrease.	Incr'se.
To western states,.....	20,525	32,798	.....	12,273
eft on the Erie canal,.....	39,400	41,237	.....	1,837
" Champlain,.....	10,395	13,152	.....	2,757
" Oswego,.....	9,245	11,607	.....	2,362
" Cayuga,.....	6,760	6,310	450	.....
" Chemung,.....	1,210	1,347	.....	187
" Crooked Lake,.....	1,137	1,496	.....	359
" Chenango,.....	3,082	2,883	199	.....
" Genesee Valley,.....	2,459	2,856	.....	397
			.....	
Total tons,.....	94,213	113,686	.....	19,473
Tolls,.....	$453,568	$566,144	.....	$112,576

The increase was largest in the exports to other states, it appears; and those exports rmed 30 per cent of the whole amount of merchandise shipped at tide-water. The increase in the tolls at that point are, it appears, this year, $82,627; being 15 per cent of he whole tolls of last year, levied on merchandise ascending the canal. It is much to be eared that the arrangements for supplying the western states with goods, across the lakes, re prepared in a manner and on a scale which will greatly interfere with the tolls of the anal, as well as with the federal revenues, and the profits of the manufacturers.

The advancing prices of goods and merchandise are now such as to tempt, in a great egree, the cupidity of the smuggler; whose illicit trade is eminently favored by the facilities offered along the whole lake frontier. One of the most efficient means of checking the growth of that trade, is to extend the means of internal communication, and hereby of lessening the cost of transportation to market. It appears, from the above tatements, that over $226,400 of tolls were derived from goods passing through the canal, from Boston and New York, for winter consumption, in 1843. The amount derived rom tolls on western produce, coming through the canals to market, is $604,319; and uring the present year, the revenues derivable from the same sources will be near $1,000,000—equal, at 6 per cent, to the interest on a capital employed in the transmission f the goods to market, of $16,600,000. This large revenue is derived from a business f less than eight months in the year. It is highly probable that the construction of the Erie railroad would open a local business fully equal to the whole expenses of the road, nd obtain a large proportion of the western trade, in addition to considerable revenues erivable from passengers. The road can be completed by a subscription of little over $6,000,000, and be to the mines of Pennsylvania a far more efficient protector from foreign inerals than ever a tariff, with a fluctuating currency, can be; inasmuch as it will reduce he cost of transportation to market in a degree that will defy foreign competition.

The increase of business creates slightly an enhancement in the value of money. On he other hand, the individual and government deposits in the vaults of the New York anks, are still increasing. Since January, 1843, the upward tendency of the bank movement has been very apparent. In July, 1842, exchanges were very low, and in favor of New York, from all points of the world. An influx of specie then commenced, which esulted in *an addition of $23,000,000 to* that in the banks, and in circulation. This long *ntinued accumulation of the precious* metals soon stimulated the institutions into a dis-

position to push their loans; and every successive quarterly return, from that period, shows several millions added to the outstanding debts due the banks. The following table gives the leading features of the institutions, up to August 1st:—

BANKS OF NEW YORK STATE.

Jan'ry,	Capital. *Dollars.*	Loans. *Dollars.*	Stocks. *Dollars.*	Specie. *Dollars.*	Bal. due bks. *Dollars.*	Circul'n. *Dollars.*	Deposits. *Dollars.*
1831,	27,555,264	57,689,704	395,809	2,657,503	4,310,936	17,820,408	19,119,338
1836,	31,281,461	72,826,111	803,159	6,224,646	3,892,314	21,127,927	20,088,685
1837,	37,101,460	79,313,188	1,794,152	6,557,020	2,630,569	24,198,000	30,883,179
1838,	36,611,460	60,999,770	2,795,207	4,139,732	2,025,292	12,460,652	15,221,860
1839,	36,801,460	68,300,486	911,623	9,355,495	1,222,158	19,373,149	18,370,044
1840,	52,028,781	67,057,067	5,464,120	7,000,529	1,031,419	14,220,304	20,051,234
1841,	51,630,280	69,230,130	6,738,000	6,536,240	1,302,000	18,456,230	20,678,279
1842,	44,310,000	56,380,073	10,291,239	5,329,857	883,099	13,949,504	17,063,774
1843,	43,950,137	52,348,467	12,446,087	8,477,076	7,771,112	12,031,871	19,100,415
August,							
1843,	43,019,577	58,593,081	12,320,987	14,091,779	10,611,940	14,599,843	24,679,230
November,							
1843,	43,369,152	61,534,129	11,665,311	11,502,789	4,941,076	17,213,101	27,387,160
February,							
1844,	43,649,887	65,418,762	11,052,458	10,086,542	5,343,347	16,335,401	29,026,415
May,							
1844,	43,462,311	70,161,068	10,362,330	9,455,161	6,650,315	18,365,031	30,742,989
August,							
1844,	43,443,005	71,623,929	10,648,211	10,191,974	7,743,594	18,091,364	28,757,112

During the eighteen months which have elapsed since January, 1843, it appears that the banks have increased their loans by the important sum of $20,000,000, or half their aggregate capital. As most of the paper so discounted matures within a circle of sixty days, the increase represents a sum equal to $120,000,000, added to the business paper of the state. The demand for money, to meet bank debts, is now $70,000,000 every sixty days, where it was but $52,348,467 in Jan., 1843—being an increase of 40 per cent in the demand; yet the value of money has not been materially enhanced, because the demand has been freely met by the increasing liabilities of the institutions. The increase in bank loans, from 1831, when the expansion commenced, to 1837, when the explosion took place, was $22,000,000, only; but in that period an important amount was added to the bank capital, and the nature of the loans was very different from those now created. The proportion of accommodation paper, or that not represented by actual transactions, was larger, and the borrowers were of small capital, and depended on renewals for a continuation of their movements. The flexibility of the bank credits was by this means greatly lessened; and the means of the banks being more beyond their control, they had not the ability to realize with sufficient rapidity to meet the demands upon them. In 1839, the banks had again extended their loans, but the nature of the paper had undergone a change; so that, notwithstanding a powerful combination in that year was formed to compel a suspension, by promptly enforcing large payments in specie, it proved entirely powerless. The institutions could promptly meet all demands, simply by ceasing to loan. The sound paper regularly maturing, afforded ample funds to meet their own obligations, as fast as presented. Very much of the same nature are the present assets of the banks; and while that is the case, the mere fact that the amount of loans is larger, does not argue that the position is less safe. No matter how great, soever, is the amount to be paid in a given time, if the sum to be received is equal to it. There is no extra demand for money, nor will its price be affected. When, however, the institutions, having payments to make, are deprived, through the necessity of renewal, of a part of that which should be returning to *them, through* the maturity of notes, they become immediately embarrassed—a part of the *active capital is* taken out of the circle of operations, and the value of money becomes *advanced, which* only enhances the evil, until explosion follows. The discount of loan

renewable paper is a prolific source and instrument of overtrading; by which we understand, in a general sense, the purchase of more goods for the consumption of a country, or part of a country, on credit, than its annual productions and exports will pay for. When that is the case, bank means are brought into requisition to supply the place of products for export, and specie goes abroad. This year, the imports have been large; but they have been paid for mostly in cash, at the time of purchase, or sent here on consignment, to be paid for when sold. In the latter case, the time of the remittance is at the option of the agent; and that moment is chosen when it can be done at the least expense, or when bills are cheapest.

The tendency of the banking movement has been rapidly expanding in the last eighteen months. If we take a table of the immediate liabilities and cash means, for several periods, this result will be the more apparent, as follows:—

IMMEDIATE MEANS AND LIABILITIES OF THE BANKS OF NEW YORK.

Liabilities.

	May, 1838.	Jan., 1843.	Nov., 1843.	May, 1844.	Aug., 1844.
Net circulation,..	$5,632,818	$7,143,884	$12,952,055	$14,987,410	$15,349,205
Deposits,.....	18,411,860	19,100,415	27,389,160	30,742,289	28,757,122
Canal fund,.....	1,010,210	1,495,888	1,157,203	1,506,167	1,210,794
Banks,.....	.....	5,372,635	4,941,514	6,650,803	7,744,118
U. States,.....	.....	.....	1,645,320	2,238,083	3,674,171
Total,.....	$25,054,888	$33,112,822	$48,085,252	$56,124,752	$56,735,410

Means.

	May, 1838.	Jan., 1843.	Nov., 1843.	May, 1844.	Aug., 1844.
Specie,.....	$9,355,495	$8,477,076	$11,502,789	$9,455,161	$10,191,974
Cash funds,.....	960,037	2,273,131	3,102,856	5,999,952	4,916,862
Total,.....	$10,315,532	$10,750,207	$14,605,645	$15,455,113	$15,108,836
Total liabilities,..	25,054,888	33,112,822	48,085,252	56,124,752	56,735,410
Excess liabilities,	$14,739,356	$22,362,615	$33,479,607	$40,689,639	$41,626,574
Loans,.....	57,903,043	52,348,467	61,514,129	70,061,068	71,643,929

In January, 1843, it is apparent that the banks, owing to the general stagnation of business, and indisposition to borrow, were in a stronger position than even at the time of their resumption, in May, 1838, in the face of the combined southern suspension. Since January, 1843, the amount of specie has been large—increasingly so—with exchanges from all points in favor of New York; and the movements of the banks show a corresponding increase of their liabilities, which, in eighteen months, have increased 80 per cent, nearly, or $23,000,000; while the cash means have increased only $5,000,000. The loans of the institutions have shown a corresponding extension, and are now at a point higher than they have reached since the suspension of specie payments, in 1837. The disposition of banks to multiply, and extend their operations, under the new law of this state, is very perceptible. The August report of the comptroller shows an increase of seven new institutions, as compared with the May report. These are mostly individual concerns, of small capital, designed to put afloat a part of the surplus capital of the owners, to use in their individual business. At the great west and south, the contraction in banking has been very great; and the business of sections, for its facilities, leans more upon the banks of New York, giving greater scope to their movements, with more comparative safety.

The state of the currency throughout the Union, as a great whole, is in a most unusually contracted state. Of the banks in eighteen states, reported nearest to January, 1844, the results were as follows:—

Circulation,.....	*$50,328,587*	Nett circulation,.....	$39,491,363
Capital,.....	*148,096,486*	Specie,.....	43,899,678
Notes on hand,.....	*10,737,294*	Loans,.....	193,936,751

Of the amount of notes on hand, a portion were checks and cash items. The nett circulation was about $41,000,000, or near $3,000,000 less than the specie on hand—a most extraordinary position of affairs, and eminently indicative of the blight which, in the past few years, has overtaken paper credits.

In the present state of affairs throughout the commercial world, it would seem that specie, at all the great commercial centres, is a mere drug. The quantities lying idle in bank at Paris, London, and New York, at latest dates, were as follows:—

Silver in Bank of France, July 1st,.....	$48,750,000
Gold " England, "	74,880,000
" in banks of New York, August,.....	9,100,000
Total, three cities,.....	$132,730,000

This is an enormous amount, lying absolutely dead and useless; and the quantity of gold is apparently on the increase. Recent advices from London state that the supply of gold from the Russian mines has reached the enormous sum of £4,000,000 annually, and that Russia has begun to "scatter her gold" through Europe. The mines of the Ural mountains are very prolific, and yield a rich ore, worked at small expense, by the serf labor of Siberia. Of this gold, $1,500,000 has been, within a few months, received in London and Germany, in exchange for goods and iron for the great railroad now in process of construction, from St. Petersburgh to Odessa. The continuance of so large a supply of gold, for any length of time, must have the effect of reducing the relative value of gold to silver; and, under our present laws, of inducing an import of the former with an export of the latter metal. The old legal proportion of gold to silver, was fifteen to one; and, practically, that was found too low. It restrained the circulation of gold; and, by causing it to be at a premium, induced its export to Europe, where it speedily assumed other shapes. Finally, in 1834, the legal value of gold was increased 6 68-100 per cent, by reducing the weight and fineness of the gold contained in an eagle. The effect of this law has been to induce the import of gold, and the export of silver. Should the actual value of gold now become reduced in the market, through the effect of increased supply, the drain of silver may be inconveniently large. It was known, formerly, that the discovery of the mines of America diminished the value of both gold and silver, throughout the world. This fact was made evident in a general rise of prices, diminishing the value of a money rent. The mines of Russia may now have the same effect on gold, in its relation to silver, and diminish the value of rents and annuities, and lighten taxation in those countries where gold alone is the legal tender, and increase them in those where silver is the standard.

The currency of Russia has, for a long time, consisted mostly of paper roubles, first issued by the great Catharine; and subsequently, from increase of quantity, they became miserably depreciated—more particularly when the invasion of Napoleon compelled the government to have recourse to that means of raising supplies. This medium of circulation, in that despotic country, although very oppressive to the people, has been far too useful to the government to be dispensed with. However, on the 1st of January, 1840, a ukase was issued, ordering that, thereafter, all accounts should be kept in silver roubles, and quotations for foreign exchange to be made in that medium. This produced a demand for silver, which has had the effect generally of raising its value, throughout the world—an effect which is heightened by the increased supply of gold from the Russian mountains. The accumulation of that metal at all the great commercial centres, as indicated above, is very remarkable; more particularly so, when we consider that the circulation of paper credits is far less than it has been at some former periods, when more gold *apparently* was in circulation, or at least not accumulated in bank vaults.

MERCANTILE LAW DEPARTMENT.

CASES IN THE UNITED STATES CIRCUIT COURT, (NEW YORK,) BEFORE JUDGE BETTS.*

RIGHTS AND REMEDIES OF FOREIGNERS.

John A. Barry's case, April 24, 1844.—This case, because it presents points of interest in respect to the rights and remedies of foreigners, in the United States tribunals, is reported, although no questions of commercial law are involved in it. John A. Barry is a native and resident of Nova Scotia. He intermarried with the daughter of an American citizen in this city, and after his marriage resided some time in Nova Scotia with his wife, and then moved to this city with his family, and went into mercantile business here. Two children were born of the marriage here, during that period. At the expiration of two or three years, he broke up business in this city, and removed to Nova Scotia; but his wife being unwilling to return with him, it was afterwards arranged between them that she should remain in her father's family for a time fixed between the husband and wife; keeping the infant daughter with her to that time, and the son so long as his father consented to his remaining. Shortly after, he took his son with him to Nova Scotia; and, at the expiration of the time limited, demanded his daughter, and also required his wife to return to her home. The daughter was not given up, and difficulties between him and his wife became so serious, that she refused to live with him. A writ of habeas corpus was sued out by him before the chancellor, against his wife and her father, demanding the restoration of the child. The chancellor decided that the child should remain with its mother, it being an infant, and requiring her nurture, &c. Another writ was shortly after sued out before a judge of the Court of Common Pleas, and he decided against the restoration of the child. An appeal was taken to the Supreme Court of the state, from this last decision; and it was by that court reversed, upon the ground that the father was by law entitled to the child. This judgment was removed to the Court of Errors, and was there reversed. Another writ of habeas corpus was taken out before a judge of the Superior Court; and he, following the decision of the chancellor, refused to award the custody of the child to the father. This latter decision was, by the father, appealed to the Supreme Court, and reversed there, upon the doctrine declared in the previous decision. This latter judgment was removed to the Court of Errors, and was by that court again reversed. At the last term of the Supreme Court of the United States, the father applied to that court for a habeas corpus. The petition was denied, because the court has no original jurisdiction over the subject. A petition was then filed by him in the Circuit Court of this circuit, praying the writ against his wife and her mother, with whom she is residing since the death of her father; and that the custody of the child, (still under seven years of age,) be awarded to him. The case was argued at great length by the petitioner; and in rendering its decision, the court discussed all the main points presented in the petition and argument, and decided:—That the habeas corpus prayed for is a prerogative writ, emanating from the common law, by which the government, as *parens patriæ*, takes to itself the guardianship of infant children, and exercises an authority in their disposal paramount to that of their natural parents. That no such common law prerogative is vested in the government of the United States, or any of its courts. That the true interpretation of the act of Congress of September 24, 1789, section 14, which authorizes the courts of the United States to issue writs of habeas corpus, limits them to cases of commitment or

* *Reported expressly for* the Merchants' Magazine.

detention, under color or claim of authority from the United States; or if not, and the writ may issue in this court in behalf of any party entitled to sue here, yet that, in respect to matters touching the domestic relations and institutions of the state, the decisions of the highest tribunal of the state supply the law of the subject, and that same law must be administered in the United States Court. That, by the law of the state so declared, the alien father of an infant daughter, under seven years of age, is not entitled, by any fixed legal right, to have the custody of such child awarded him, on habeas corpus against its mother. The habeas corpus was accordingly denied. It is understood the petitioner intends removing the case to the Supreme Court of the United States, at its next term.

VIOLATION OF PATENT.

Stephens *vs.* D. & W. Felt, May 11, 1844.—This was an action for the violation of the plaintiff's patent for the manufacture of blue writing ink, or a blue liquid for staining paper, &c. The cause occupied the court from April 21 to May 11, numerous witnesses having been examined on both sides—on the part of the defendants, to prove a discovery and use of the article prior to the patent; and on the part of the plaintiff, to counteract that evidence, and prove he was the first and original discoverer, and that the defendants had wilfully violated his right, and to a great extent. The discovery consisted in the application of oxalic acid as a solvent to Prussian blue, by which a combination of the two substances is effected, and the blue is held suspended after being dissolved. It was proved that the discovery is highly valuable, and that the article is in extensive use in this country, as a writing fluid and a dye; and evidence was given tending to prove that the defendants had simulated the plaintiff's label, and had applied these simulated labels to bottles, or had used bottles before filled and labelled by the plaintiff; and, in vending their manufacture, had represented it to be that of the plaintiff. The judge instructed the jury that—1. The true construction of this patent is, that it secures an improvement in the use in combination of oxalates, or oxalic acid, and Prussian blue, in the manner pointed out in the specification, for the purpose of manufacturing a coloring matter, and rendering the color more applicable to dyeing, staining, and writing. 2. The patent is valid to this end, if the proofs show that the plaintiff is the first and original inventor of the composition claimed, and that it is useful for the purposes described in the patent. 3. A claim in the patent for more than plaintiff was the first and original discoverer and inventor of, will not avoid it as to that which is new; and if his process in the separate preparation of either of the ingredients named in his patent was before known and used, yet, if his combination of them is new, and the result produced is new and useful, his patent is valid. 4. A mere abstract discovery or knowledge, by others, of the preparation of Prussian blue, as described in the patent, or the properties and effect of oxalic acid, in combination with Prussian blue, unless such knowledge was in actual practical use prior to plaintiff's discovery, will not defeat his patent. 5. Any prior discovery, and practical use of the subject patented, however small and limited such use was, will defeat the patent, unless such use was secret, and confined to the knowledge of the discover alone. 6. The patent will be defeated if the proofs show that the coloring fluid claimed thereby has been before produced by the same combination of ingredients, whether the product was intended for or applied to the same purpose and use as that contemplated by plaintiff, or not; or whether or not the product was less complete and perfect, in all respects, than that of the patentee. 7. If the plaintiff's patent is sustained, the use of labels by the defendants, counterfeiting his, affords no ground for damages in this action. The jury must give damages only to cover the injury sustained by the plaintiff by means of the manufacture and sale, by defendants, of coloring matter, made in violation of his patent. The jury found *a verdict for plaintiff*, $2,000 damages.

ACTION TO RECOVER DUTIES EXACTED AT THE CUSTOM-HOUSE.

Wetzlar *vs.* Swartwout, May 27, 1844.—This was an action to recover back $2,787 45, and interest, duties exacted at the custom-house, on the importation, by the plaintiff, of various invoices of brown linens. The collector charged duties on the goods as *colored*, and the plaintiff insisted that they were *unbleached* linens, and duty free. These goods were imported between the 31st of December, 1833, and the 30th of June, 1842; and evidence was offered to show that the dark brown of the goods arose from the manner of rotting the flax. For the United States, it was claimed that the goods had been dyed or stained. The judge charged the jury that, by the act of July 14, 1832, section 2, article 24, a duty of 15 per cent was imposed on bleached and unbleached linen; but, by the fourth section of the act of March 2, 1833, these articles are made free, if imported after the 31st of December, 1833, and prior to the 30th of June, 1842; and that the provisions of the latter law would apply to these goods, if they are of the quality therein specified. The testimony of the plaintiff is offered in a double point of view. First, to prove that the goods are the color of the rotted flax; and second, that if any coloring matter is mingled with the water in which the flax is rotted, the fact is unknown to the trade, and that the article is always bought and sold in market, and known in commerce as unbleached linen. If either fact is proved to the satisfaction of the jury, the plaintiff is entitled to a verdict; for the goods would not be liable to duty, though subjected to a staining process, if their known denomination in commerce was still that of unbleached linen. Verdict for plaintiff, $3,217 99.

ACTION TO RECOVER DUTIES PAID ON IMPORTATION OF MERCHANDISE.

Paton, *et al.*, *vs.* Curtis, May 30, 1844.—This was an action to recover back $255 88, duties paid on the importation of "worsted window lines, and mohair cord." The lines were charged with the woollen duty, as being a manufacture from wool; and the cord was also charged the like duty, as bindings. The plaintiff protested against the payment of duties, claiming that the lines and cords were free, as non-enumerated articles. Testimony was offered on both sides—the plaintiff proving that the lines were worsted, sometimes entirely; sometimes woven hollow, and enclosing a small wire, or small twine of linen, tow, cotton, or hemp; and that they are bought and sold, and known in commerce as worsted articles. That the cord was also wholly worsted, though known in trade by the name of mohair cord. The defendant insisted—1. That the lines were woollen, and subject to woollen duty; or, 2. That the lines, having inner strings of linen or cotton, are in part composed of cotton or linen, and are thus subject to the duty on these articles. 3. That the mohair is known as bindings, and subject to a specific duty as such. The court charged the jury that the tariff acts were to be understood as making a distinction between wool and worsted; so that a duty imposed on woollen goods would not, under that name, apply to worsted goods. If the jury are satisfied, upon the evidence, that the lines were manufactured from worsted, the plaintiffs are entitled to enter them free of duty, there being no description of dutiable articles in the act applicable to them. Nor does the fact, if proved, that they are woven round a linen or cotton string, bring them within the duties laid on those articles; first, because the duty is imposed by the tariff laws on linen as an entire article, and not where it forms only a part of the manufactured thing; and secondly, the interior string, or filling, if of cotton, does not, upon the evidence, appear to constitute a component part of the lines, in the sense of the duty acts; for each part is a complete and perfect fabric in itself, and is in no way changed or varied by being used in union with the other. But, thirdly, this point is no way material; for, in the present case, there is no proof that any cotton string was found in these lines. So, as to the mohair cord, if that is its known appellation in commerce, it is free of duty, although it *be made of wool, or be used* as bindings; for, when the name of articles known *and established in trade is not specified* in the tariff acts, they are regarded as non-enumerated. *The jury found a verdict for* the plaintiffs.

BOTTOMRY BONDS—THE BRIG BRIDGETON.

A bottomry bond was given by the master of the brig, at Pensacola, to secure the sum of $2,179 18-100, stated in the bond to have been advanced by the obligee, for the necessities of the vessel. The master also, at the same time, drew a bill on the owner, for the same amount. It was proved that the vessel required some repairs and supplies, but the evidence on the part of the claimant showed that not over $350 was required for these purposes. There was no proof, other than the recital in the bond, that the master had no other means for obtaining the money, or that the full sum advanced by the obligee was necessary for the outfit of the brig. It was contended for the libellant that the bond was prima facie evidence of the necessities of the brig, and of the inability of the master to procure funds otherwise, and was sufficient to entitle him to a decree for the amount. It was further urged, that the evidence produced by the claimant established the existence of a necessity on the part of the vessel, and that the lender was not bound to examine into the extent of that necessity, but rightfully confided in the representations of the master. Judge Betts decided that when parties came in, and contested the validity of a bottomry, the bond, of itself, was not sufficient evidence upon which to found a decree. If the old rule is not to be regarded in full force—that the bottomry holder must prove a necessity equal to the sum loaned, and that the master had no other resources than a bottomry loan to supply it—still, the doctrine has never been established, that the mere assertions of the master, oral or written, were sufficient to support a bottomry. All the mischiefs which the law has sedulously endeavored to restrain or counteract, as likely to result from the exercise of this extraordinary power by ship-masters, would be tolerated and encouraged if a bottomry bond was to be enforced in admiralty on the mere proof of its execution. The judge further remarked, that upon this ground he had refused to decree in behalf of the bond at the first hearing; but, upon the suggestion of the libellant, that he was taken by surprise, and wished an opportunity to furnish additional evidence, the cause was kept open for further proofs. That the new proofs offered by the libellant removed the difficulty only in part, as he proved no necessity for a bottomry, nor was it indeed shown, by his own clerks, that money to the amount secured by the bond had been advanced, or what, if any, maritime interest was reserved. The judge stated that he considered the true rule to be, that a bottomry holder must prove, by evidence extraneous of the bond, the existence of a necessity on the part of the vessel; and at least by bills and vouchers, if no higher evidence, the sums advanced by him; and, if the maritime interest is included in the face of the bond, and not designated by it, the rate of premium or interest exacted. That, in this case, there is no proof of the amount of marine interest reserved, the bond being taken for a gross sum; and that, upon all the circumstances in proof, the bond ought to operate only as a hypothecation of the vessel, for the amount actually required for her repair and outfit; and, as the testimony showed that the sum did not exceed $350, the decree was granted for that amount, with interest and costs, and the bond pronounced against as to the residue.

ACTION ON A CHARTER-PARTY.

Burgess *vs.* De Zaldo.—This was an action on a charter-party of the brig Virginia, from New York to Cuba and back, executed between the libellant (the owner) and the defendant. The agreed affreightment was $1,100, one-half of which was to be regarded earned and due on the discharge of the outward cargo, or the other half to be paid on the discharge of the homeward cargo. It was stipulated that the defendant should advance to the captain, at Havana, "sufficient for his sundry expenses" at that port. The outward cargo was safely delivered, and the defendant's correspondent at Havana paid the captain, *from time to time*, as he required money, the whole $550 due; $288 of which was *applied to the* necessities of the brig, $155 25 remitted the libellant, and $106 75 retained *and appropriated* by the master. On the return of the vessel to this port, the owner re-

tled with the master for the voyage, and took his promissory note for $200, due from him to the vessel, and discharged him from his command. The defendant shipped, for return cargo, a large quantity of cigars, (4,500,) and three quarter boxes of which were crushed and destroyed on the homeward voyage, by occasion of perils of the sea; and all the residue, with the exception of one quarter box, were safely delivered to the defendant. On the discharge of the vessel, one quarter box was found without mark, and was deposited in the public store; and the delivery was short of the contents of the bill of lading one quarter box, of a specified mark. The libellant claimed the recovery of the whole stipulated freight, less the $288 expended on the brig at Havana, and $155 25 paid him; and contended that the further payments to the captain were without authority, and the loss must be borne by the defendant. The defendant insisted that the charter contract had not been fulfilled, as the libellant failed to deliver at this port the cargo shipped on board at Havana; and that he was not bound to pay any freight without an entire delivery of the cargo. If the decision of the court should be against him on the general defence, he claimed credits for $550, paid at Havana; also, for the entry charges of the vessel, on her return to this port, and for $25 cash, paid the master here, on his return; and for the value of the cigars destroyed on the voyage, and the quarter box not delivered. The court (Judge Betts) decided that the charterer was not an insurer of the cargo, and that his contract was performed on his part by the delivery of the cargo in the condition it was on arrival here, as defendant was bound to bear all losses from perils of the sea; and that the transportation of the number of quarter boxes of cigars called for by the bill of lading satisfied the bill of lading, though one box was without the designated mark; it not appearing that any other person claimed it, or had laden on board similar boxes. The court farther decided, that the captain was appointed by the charter-party to receive at Havana money necessary for his expenses; and, independent of that, he was, by the law maritime, the agent of the owner in foreign ports, if no other one was specially appointed or designated, in respect to the reparations and supply of the vessel; and that the defendant rightfully paid to the master, on his requisition, at Havana, the sums claimed as credits, and was not answerable for their proper application by the master. The court farther decided, that if the payment of $25 to the master, in this port, by the defendant, was without authority, yet, as it had been in part applied in payment of the mate's wages, and as the libellant had not disavowed the payment to the defendant, and had subsequently settled with the master, and taken his obligation for the money, he had ratified the payment, and the defendant was entitled to credit therefor. Decree for the libellant, (after such allowances,) for $502 03-100, and costs.

LOAN—HYPOTHECATED STOCK.

In the Circuit Court, (New York.)—Farmers' Loan and Trust Company *vs.* Samuel B. Jewett. The company brings action to recover $8,000, being the amount of a loan in 1838, for which Mr. Jewett hypothecated 120 shares Southern Life Insurance and Trust Company stock, worth at the time $12,000. The loan, it is said, was on certificates of deposit, at one year's date, at 5 per centum interest, which were below par in the market. The obligation on which the suit is brought, is a promise to pay any deficiency after the sale of the stock at the broker's board, and to pay 7 per cent for the loan. This, it is contended, is usury. Also, that the company never offered the stock for sale, but let it run down in their hands. The non-sale was shown to be in accordance with the written request of Mr. J., who wished that it might not be sold, as it would be sacrificed. The stock, when first pledged, paid regular dividends. Verdict for plaintiff, $10,109; subject to the opinion of the Supreme Court.

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION OF THE UNITED STATES.

The Annual Report of the Secretary of the Treasury, communicating the annual statements of the commerce and navigation of the United States, for the last quarter of the calendar year, 1842, and the first two quarters of the year 1843, has been printed. It will be noticed that the present report embraces only nine months. This occurs in consequence of an act passed August 26, 1842, changing the fiscal or commercial year, so that it will hereafter commence on the 1st day of July, and end on the 30th day of June of the succeeding year, instead of commencing on the 1st day of October, and ending on the 30th of September. The next annual report will, therefore, be complete for one year, (i. e., from July, 1843, to June 30th, 1844.) That report will be laid before Congress at its next session, and we see no reason why it should not be printed immediately thereafter; at least before the commencement of 1845. The importance of prompt information touching our commerce and navigation, is not properly appreciated, either by the department or the government printer. In Great Britain, the annual reports corresponding with our own, are made up to the 5th of January in each year, laid before Parliament, and published before the expiration of a week. The British government publish, in addition, quarterly reports. We receive, from our correspondent in Paris, the "Tableau General Du Commerce de la France," although a quarto volume, much larger than our treasurer's report, for the same year, long before the United States annual report reaches us from Washington. The acknowledged industry and efficiency of Mr. Spencer led us to hope that this delay would have been remedied; and we have no doubt that such would have been the case, had he continued in the department. We trust, however, that Mr. Bibb, the new secretary, will take the matter in hand; as the chief value of these documents, to the great commercial interests of the country, consists in their prompt and early publication.

In accordance with our custom, we now proceed to lay before our readers a summary and tabular view of the commerce and navigation of the United States, as derived from the annual report before us. From this report, it appears that the exports during the nine months ending 30th June, 1843, have amounted to $84,346,480; of which $77,793,783 were of domestic, and $6,552,697 of foreign articles. Of domestic articles, $60,107,819 were exported in American vessels, and $17,685,964 in foreign vessels. Of the foreign articles, $4,945,817 were exported in American vessels, and $1,606,880 in foreign vessels. The imports during the nine months ending the 30th June, 1843, have amounted to $64,753,799; of which there were imported in American vessels $49,971,875, and in foreign vessels $14,781,924. 1,143,523 tons of American shipping entered, and 1,268,083 tons cleared, from the ports of the United States. 534,752 tons of foreign shipping entered, and 523,949 tons cleared, during the same period.

The registered tonnage, as collected in the register's office, is stated at...	1,009,305.01
The enrolled and licensed tonnage, at.....	1,076,155.59
And fishing vessels, at.....	73,142.33
Tons,.....	2,158,602.93
Of registered and enrolled tonnage, amounting, as before stated, to.....	2,085,460.60
There were employed in the whale fishery,.....	153,374.86

The total tonnage of shipping built in the United States, during the nine months ending on the 30th June, 1843, viz:—

Registered,.....	27,275.32
Enrolled,.....	36,342.45
Tons,.....	63,617.77

DOMESTIC EXPORTS OF THE UNITED STATES.

Summary statement of the value of the Exports, of the growth, produce, and manufacture of the United States, during the nine months commencing on the 1st day of October, 1842, and ending on the 30th day of June, 1843.

THE SEA.			
Fisheries—			
Dried fish, or cod fisheries,		$381,175	
Pickled fish, or river fisheries, (herring, shad, salmon, mackerel,)		116,042	
Whale and other fish oil,		803,774	
Spermaceti oil,		310,768	
Whalebone,		257,481	
Spermaceti candles,		243,308	
			$2,112,548
THE FOREST.			
Skins and furs,		453,869	
Ginseng,		193,870	
Product of wood—			
Staves, shingles, boards, hewn timber,	$1,026,179		
Other lumber,	211,111		
Masts and spars,	19,669		
Oak bark, and other dye,	39,538		
All manufactures of wood,	391,312		
Naval stores, tar, pitch, rosin, and turpentine,	475,357		
Ashes, pot and pearl,	541,004		
		2,704,170	
			3,351,909
AGRICULTURE.			
Product of animals—			
Beef, tallow, hides, horned cattle,	1,092,949		
Butter and cheese,	508,968		
Pork, (pickled,) bacon, lard, live hogs,	2,120,020		
Horses and mules,	212,696		
Sheep,	29,061		
		3,963,694	
Vegetable food—			
Wheat,	264,109		
Flour,	3,763,073		
Indian corn,	281,749		
Indian meal,	454,166		
Rye meal,	65,631		
Rye, oats, and other small grain, and pulse,	108,640		
Biscuit, or ship bread,	312,232		
Potatoes,	47,757		
Apples,	32,825		
Rice,	1,625,726		
		6,955,908	
			10,919,602
Tobacco,			4,650,979
Cotton,			49,119,806
All other agricultural products—			
Flax-seed,		49,406	
Hops,		123,745	
Brown sugar,		3,435	
Indigo,		198	
			176,784
MANUFACTURES.			
Soap, and tallow candles,		407,105	
Leather, boots and shoes,		115,355	
Household furniture,		197,982	
Coaches, and other carriages,		48,036	
Hats,		39,843	
Saddlery,		17,653	
Wax,		137,532	
Spirits from grain,		21,395	

DOMESTIC EXPORTS OF THE UNITED STATES—Continued.

Beer, ale, porter, and cider,		44,064	
Snuff and tobacco,		278,319	
Lead,		492,765	
Linseed oil, and spirits of turpentine,		29,434	
Cordage,		22,198	
Iron—pig, bar, and nail,		120,923	
" castings,		41,189	
" all manufactures of,		370,581	
Spirits from molasses,		117,537	
Sugar, refined,		47,345	
Chocolate,		2,032	
Gunpowder,		47,088	
Copper and brass,		79,234	
Medicinal drugs,		108,438	
			2,786,048
Cotton piece goods—			
Printed and colored,	358,415		
White,	2,575,049		
Twist, yarn, and thread,	57,312		
All other manufactures of,	232,774		
		3,223,550	
Flax and hemp—bags, and all manufactures of,		326	
Wearing apparel,		28,845	
Combs and buttons,		23,227	
Brushes,		4,467	
Billiard-tables and apparatus,		415	
Umbrellas and parasols,		4,654	
Leather and morocco skins, not sold per lb.,		26,782	
Printing-presses and type,		20,530	
Musical instruments,		6,684	
Books and maps,		23,643	
Paper and stationery,		51,391	
Paints and varnish,		28,994	
Vinegar,		7,555	
Earthen and stone-ware,		2,907	
Manufactures of glass,		25,348	
" tin,		5,026	
" pewter and lead,		7,121	
" marble and stone,		8,545	
" gold and silver, and gold leaf,		1,905	
Gold and silver coin,		107,429	
Artificial flowers and jewelry,		3,769	
Molasses,		1,317	
Trunks,		2,072	
Bricks and lime,		3,883	
Domestic salt,		10,262	
			3,630,647
Articles not enumerated—			
Manufactured,		470,261	
Other articles,		575,199	
			1,045,460
Total,			$77,793,783

VALUE OF THE DOMESTIC EXPORTS OF THE UNITED STATES, IN AMERICAN AND FOREIGN VESSELS, TO EACH FOREIGN COUNTRY AND POWER.

The following table exhibits the value of the goods, wares, and merchandise, of the growth, produce, and manufacture of the United States, exported from the United States; *distinguishing* the value in American and foreign vessels, and also the value exported to *each foreign country*, and to the dominions of each power, for the three quarters ending *30th of June, 1843*:—

ther Exported.	In American vessels.	In foreign vessels.	To each country.	To each Power.
,.....	$293,677	$16,190	$309,867	$309,867
,.....	120,702	101,337	222,039	222,039
n and Norway,.....	3,420	14,961	18,381	49,609
ıh West Indies,.....	31,228	.....	31,228	
ırk,.....	8,635	66,022	74,657	746,815
ı West Indies,.....	667,199	4,959	672,158	
Towns,.....	827,788	2,071,160	2,898,948	2,898,948
ıd,.....	1,536,933	161,394	1,698,327	2,018,183
East Indies,.....	90,239	.....	90,239	
West Indies,.....	204,937	.....	204,937	
Guiana,.....	24,680	.....	24,680	
m,.....	1,322,238	351,986	1,674,224	1,674,224
nd,.....	26,716,513	10,432,582	37,149,095	45,428,811
nd,.....	1,082,729	1,280,625	2,363,354	
d,.....	184,287	24,215	208,502	
tar,.....	175,125	43,126	218,251	
.....	6,436	.....	6,436	
ı East Indies,.....	237,576	.....	237,576	
of Good Hope,.....	30,055	.....	30,055	
dia,.....	57,805	.....	57,805	
ıras,.....	92,278	.....	92,278	
ı Guiana,.....	68,915	47,230	116,145	
ı West Indies,.....	1,958,854	373,455	2,332,309	
ı American colonies,.....	1,393,557	1,223,448	2,617,005	
e on the Atlantic,.....	9,561,732	822,846	10,384,578	11,934,066
e on the Mediterranean,....	1,186,294	.....	1,186,294	
h West Indies,.....	280,491	1,337	281,828	
h Guiana,.....	45,374	.....	45,374	
lon, and French fisheries,.	5,215	.....	5,215	
on, &c.,.....	29,245	.....	29,245	
h African ports,.....	.....	1,532	1,532	
on the Atlantic,.....	48,602	1,498	50,100	3,483,898
iffe, and Canaries,.....	7,099	.....	7,099	
la, and Philippine islands,.	57,743	.....	57,743	
.....	2,710,020	216,902	2,926,922	
Spanish West Indies,.....	437,876	4,158	442,034	
gal,.....	56,843	2,253	59,096	157,541
ra,.....	37,649	.....	37,649	
and other Azores,.....	8,569	.....	8,569	
le Verd islands,.....	52,227	.....	52,227	
.....	485,765	55,735	541,500	541,500
lia,.....	108,091	.....	108,091	108,091
.....	6,085	26,473	32,558	32,558
e, and Austrian ports,.....	341,885	118,355	460,240	460,240
y, Levant, &c.,.....	108,465	.....	108,465	108,465
.....	596,270	14,526	610,796	610,796
,.....	99,949	5,291	105,240	105,240
o,.....	833,388	74,357	907,745	907,745
l Republic of America,....	34,469	.... .	34,469	34,469
Granada,.....	72,009	.....	72,009	72,009
uela,.....	443,153	39,924	483,077	483,077
,.....	1,514,710	53,874	1,568,584	1,568,584
tine Republic,.....	219,576	.....	219,576	219,576
tine Republic,.....	168,083	.....	168,083	168,083
.....	869,883	.....	869,883	869,883
,.....	1,755,393	.....	1,755,393	1,755,393
Indies, generally,.....	93,065	2,347	95,412	95,412
America, generally,.....	98,713	.....	98,713	98,713
e, generally,.....	36,066	.....	36,066	36,066
generally,.....	253,861	.....	253,861	253,861
, generally,.....	249,194	31,866	281,060	281,060
Seas, and Pacific ocean,...	58,961	.....	58,961	58,961
Total,.....	$60,107,819	$17,685,964	$77,793,783	$77,793,783

The total value of our domestic exports, for the nine months, amounts, as will be seen by the footing of the foregoing table, to $77,793,783. Of this amount, $45,428,811 were exported to England, and her dominions in the four quarters of the globe; leaving only $32,364,972 of exports for all other countries and dominions.

VALUE OF FOREIGN MERCHANDISE EXPORTED FROM THE UNITED STATES, IN AMERICAN AND FOREIGN VESSELS, TO EACH FOREIGN COUNTRY AND POWER.

The following table exhibits the value of goods, wares, and merchandise, of the growth, produce, and manufacture of foreign countries, exported from the United States, for the nine months commencing 1st of October, 1842, and ending 30th of June, 1843; distinguishing the total value to each foreign country, and to the dominions of each power, and also the value in American and in foreign vessels:—

Value of Merchandise exported to each Country.

Whither Exported.	In American vessels.	In foreign vessels.	Total.	To dom. of each Power.
Russia,	$72,785	$4,141	$76,926	$76,926
Prussia,	6,261	12,069	18,330	18,330
Sweden and Norway,	13,628	2,179	15,807	18,153
Swedish West Indies,	2,346	.....	2,346	
Denmark,	6,510	.....	6,510	81,050
Danish West Indies,	73,920	620	74,540	
Hanse Towns,	89,833	303,151	392,984	392,984
Holland,	226,535	11,605	238,140	352,701
Dutch East Indies,	103,742	.....	103,742	
Dutch West Indies,	10,819	.....	10,819	
Belgium,	260,815	35,670	296,485	296,485
England,	198,796	907,268	1,106,064	1,473,094
Scotland,	2,000	12,657	14,657	
Ireland,	.....	1,180	1,180	
Gibraltar,	37,847	350	38,197	
Malta,	11,471	.....	11,471	
British East Indies,	140,136	.....	140,136	
Australia,	11,232	.....	11,232	
Honduras,	16,304	.....	16,304	
British Guiana,	.....	695	695	
British West Indies,	5,405	20,266	25,671	
British American colonies,	55,173	52,244	107,417	
France on the Atlantic,	307,846	133,732	441,578	538,387
France on the Mediterranean,	83,701	.....	83,701	
French West Indies,	13,108	.....	13,108	
Spain on the Atlantic,	240	.....	240	469,796
Teneriffe, and other Canaries,	3,925	.....	3,925	
Manilla, and Philippine islands,	54,435	.....	54,435	
Cuba,	399,754	121	399,875	
Other Spanish West Indies,	11,321	.....	11,321	
Portugal,	1,538	.....	1,538	10,993
Madeira,	3,856	.....	3,856	
Fayal, and other Azores,	621	.....	621	
Cape de Verd islands,	4,978	.....	4,978	
Italy,	169,412	17,309	186,721	186,721
Sicily,	.....	51,871	51,871	51,871
Trieste, and other Austrian ports,	98,923	20,015	118,938	118,938
Turkey, Levant, and Egypt,	68,014	.....	68,014	68,014
Hayti,	41,308	1,266	42,574	42,574
Texas,	36,885	828	37,713	37,713
Mexico,	555,787	8,405	564,192	564,192
Central Republic of America,	18,497	.....	18,497	18,497
New Granada,	89,944	.....	84,944	84,944
Venezuela,	96,656	3,769	100,425	100,425
Brazil,	218,765	4,939	223,704	223,704

OF FOREIGN MERCHANDISE EXPORTED FROM THE U. STATES, etc.—Continued.

exported.	In American vessels.	In foreign vessels.	Total.	To each Power.
Republic,.....	$75,549	.....	$75,549	$75,549
Republic,.....	94,026	.....	94,026	94,026
.....	179,580	.....	179,580	179,580
.....	663,565	.....	663,565	663,565
ies, generally,.....	125	.....	125	125
nerally,.....	140	.....	140	140
rally,.....	267,296	.....	267,296	267,296
nerally, ...	21,659	530	22,189	22,189
s, &c.,.....	18,805	.....	18,805	18,805
tal,.....	$4,945,817	$1,606,880	$6,552,697	$6,552,697
drawback,.....	$1,914,993	$1,027,731	$2,942,724	$2,942,724
d to drawback,.....	3,030,824	579,149	3,609,973	3,609,973

oregoing value of foreign exports from the United States, $3,096,125 were ad- o the United States free of duty; $1,889,257 paid duties ad valorem, and 5 paid specific duties; of which $2,942,724 were entitled to drawback, and 5 were not entitled to drawback. Of the total amount of foreign goods ex- 6,552,697,) $1,473,024 were sent to England, and her dominions throughout

ORTS INTO THE UNITED STATES, FROM EACH FOREIGN COUNTRY AND POWER.

llowing table of the goods, wares, and merchandise of foreign countries, im- the United States, for the nine months ending 30th of June, 1843, the value an and foreign vessels is distinguished, as also the value to the dominions of n power:—

imported.	Total.	In American vessels.	In foreign vessels.	From dom. of each Power.
.....	$742,803	$731,603	$11,200	$742,803
d Norway,.....	227,356	48,900	178,456	278,674
Vest Indies,.....	51,318	51,318	.....	
est Indies,.....	485,285	470,834	14,451	485,285
ns,.....	920,865	12,234	908,631	920,865
.....	430,823	359,355	71,468	815,451
t Indies,.....	121,524	121,524	.....	
st Indies,.....	230,571	223,771	6,800	
ana,.....	32,533	32,533	.....	
.....	171,695	114,782	56,913	171,695
.....	26,141,118	14,637,732	11,503,386	28,978,582
.....	128,846	44,064	84,782	
.....	43,535	.....	43,535	
.....	23,915	16,809	7,106	
.....	27	27	.....	
t Indies,.....	689,777	689,777	.....	
ood Hope,.....	31,192	31,192	.....	
.....	44,910	44,910	.....	
.....	136,688	136,688	.....	
iana,.....	43,042	34,216	8,826	
st Indies,.....	837,836	538,798	299,038	
erican colonies,.....	857,696	541,969	315,727	
the Atlantic,.....	7,050,537	6,756,403	294,134	7,836,137
the Mediterranean,....	609,149	546,746	62,403	
est Indies,.....	135,921	112,040	23,881	
iana,.....	40,411	40,411	.....	
and French fisheries,..	119	119	.....	
e Atlantic, ...	49,029	48,474	555	6,980,504
e Mediterranean,.....	415,069	343,880	71,189	
nd other *Canaries*,....	*15,058*	8,983	6,075	
d Philippine islands,..	*409,290*	409,290	.....	
.....	*5,015,933*	4,883,185	132,748	
h West Indies,.....	*1,076,125*	1,072,199	3,926	

IMPORTS INTO THE UNITED STATES, FROM EACH FOREIGN COUNTRY AND POWER—Continued.

Whence imported.	Total.	In American vessels.	In foreign vessels.	From each Power.
Portugal,	$46,713	$40,243	$6,470	
Madeira,	7,160	7,160	.....	71,369
Fayal, and other Azores,	12,783	12,783	.....	
Cape de Verd islands,	4,713	4,713	.....	
Italy,	394,564	377,797	16,767	394,564
Sicily,	169,664	155,856	13,808	169,664
Trieste, and other Austrian ports,	72,957	72,957	.....	72,957
Turkey, Levant, and Egypt;	182,854	182,854	.....	182,854
Hayti,	898,447	885,998	12,449	898,447
Texas,	445,399	444,463	936	445,399
Mexico,	2,782,406	2,621,052	161,354	2,782,406
Central Republic of America,	132,167	132,167	.....	132,167
New Granada,	115,733	115,133	600	115,733
Venezuela,	1,191,280	1,082,880	108,400	1,191,280
Brazil,	3,947,658	3,644,723	302,935	3,947,658
Cisplatine Republic,	121,753	121,753	.....	121,753
Argentine Republic,	793,488	766,333	27,155	793,488
Chili,	857,556	857,556	.....	857,556
Peru,	135,563	135,563	.....	135,563
China,	4,385,566	4,385,566	.....	4,385,566
Asia, generally,	445,637	445,637	.....	445,637
Africa,	353,274	327,454	25,820	353,274
South Seas, and Pacific ocean,	45,845	45,845	.....	45,845
Uncertain places,	623	623	.....	623
Total,	$64,753,799	$49,971,875	$14,781,924	$64,753,799

EXPORTS AND IMPORTS OF THE UNITED STATES.

Statistical View of the Commerce of U. States, exhibiting value of Exports to, and Imports from, each foreign country, from 1st October, 1842, to 30th June, 1843.

Countries.	Value of Exports. Domestic produce.	Foreign produce.	Total.	Value of imports.
Russia,	$309,867	$76,926	$386,793	$742,803
Prussia,	222,039	18,330	240,369	.....
Sweden,	18,381	15,807	34,188	227,356
Swedish West Indies,	31,228	2,346	33,574	51,318
Denmark,	74,657	6,510	81,167	.....
Danish West Indies,	672,158	74,540	746,698	485,285
Holland,	1,698,327	238,140	1,936,467	430,823
Dutch East Indies,	90,239	103,742	193,981	121,524
Dutch West Indies,	204,937	10,819	215,756	230,571
Dutch Guiana,	24,680	.....	24,680	32,533
Belgium,	1,674,224	296,485	1,970,709	171,695
Hanse Towns,	2,898,948	392,984	3,291,932	920,865
Hanover,	.....	.....	.....	.....
England,	37,149,095	1,106,064	38,255,159	26,141,118
Scotland,	2,363,354	14,657	2,378,011	128,846
Ireland,	208,502	1,180	209,682	43,593
Gibraltar,	218,251	38,197	256,448	23,515
Malta,	6,436	11,471	17,907	27
British East Indies,	237,576	140,136	377,712	689,777
Australia,	57,805	11,232	69,037	44,910
Cape of Good Hope,	30,055	.....	30,055	31,192
British African ports,	.....	.....	.....	.....
British West Indies,	2,332,309	25,671	2,357,980	837,836
British Honduras,	92,278	16,304	108,582	136,688
British Guiana,	116,145	695	116,840	43,042
British American colonies,	2,617,005	107,417	2,724,422	857,696
Other British colonies,	.....	.....	.....	.....
France on the Atlantic,	10,384,578	441,578	10,826,156	7,050,357
France on the Mediterranean,	1,186,294	83,701	1,269,995	609,10

EXPORTS AND IMPORTS OF THE UNITED STATES—Continued.

ntries.	VALUE OF EXPORTS. Domestic produce.	Foreign produce.	Total.	Value of imports.
on,.....	$29,245	.....	$29,245	.....
h West Indies,.....	281,628	$13,108	294,936	$135,921
h Guiana,.....	45,374	.....	45,374	40,411
lon, and French fisheries,...	5,215	.....	5,215	119
h African ports,.....	1,532	.....	1,532	.....
.....	610,796	42,574	653,370	898,447
on the Atlantic,.....	50,100	240	50,340	49,029
on the Mediterranean,.....	.....	.....	.....	415,069
iffe, and other Canaries,.....	7,099	3,925	11,024	15,058
la, and Philippine islands,...	57,743	54,435	112,178	409,290
.....	2,926,922	399,875	3,326,797	5,015,933
Spanish West Indies,.....	442,034	11,321	453,355	1,076,125
gal,..	59,096	1,538	60,634	46,718
ira,.....	37,649	3,856	41,505	7,160
, and other Azores,.....	8,569	621	9,190	12,783
de Verd islands,.....	52,227	4,978	57,205	4,713
.....	541,500	186,721	728,221	394,564
.....	32,558	51,871	84,429	169,664
ia,.....	108,091	.....	108,091	.....
e,.....	460,240	118,938	579,178	72,957
y,.....	108,465	68,014	176,479	182,854
co, &c.,.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
,.....	105,240	37,713	142,953	445,399
o,.....	907,745	564,192	1,471,937	2,782,406
al America,.....	34,469	18,497	52,966	132,167
uela,.....	483,077	100,425	583,502	1,191,280
Granada,.....	72,009	89,944	161,953	115,733
.....	1,568,584	223,704	1,792,288	3,947,658
itine Republic,.....	168,063	94,026	262,109	793,488
itine Republic,.....	219,576	75,549	295,125	121,753
.....	869,883	179,580	1,049,463	857,556
.....	.....	.....	.....	135,563
America, generally,.....	98,713	.....	98,713	.....
.....	1,755,393	663,565	2,418,958	4,385,566
e, generally,.....	36,066	140	36,206	.....
generally,.....	253,861	267,296	521,157	445,637
, generally,.....	281,060	22,189	303,249	353,274
Indies, generally,.....	95,412	125	95,537	.....
tic ocean,.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Seas,.....	58,961	18,805	77,766	45,845
rich Islands,.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
tain places,.....	.....	.....	.....	623
Total,.....	$77,793,783	$6,552,697	$84,346,480	$64,753,799

NAVIGATION OF THE UNITED STATES WITH DIFFERENT COUNTRIES.

tical View of the Tonnage of American and Foreign Vessels, arriving from, and arting to, each foreign country, from the 1st day of October, 1842, to the 30th day une, 1843.

ntries.	AMERICAN TONNAGE. Entered U. S.	Cleared U. S.	FOREIGN TONNAGE. Entered U. S.	Cl'd U. S.
,.....	8,213	4,163	271	271
a,.....	.....	2,173	.....	1,905
n,.....	816	780	4,781	488
ish West Indies,.....	721	949	.....	.....
ark,.....	.....	465	418	1,714
h West Indies,.....	24,248	23,036	3,660	358
nd,.....	16,512	23,239	1,477	2,860
East Indies,.....	701	2,890	.....	.....
West Indies,.....	7,801	3,794	194	248
Guiana,.....	3,549	3,066	.....	.....

NAVIGATION OF THE UNITED STATES WITH DIFFERENT COUNTRIES—Continued.

Countries.	American Tonnage. Ent. U. S.	American Tonnage. Cl'd U. S.	Foreign Tonnage. Ent. U. S.	Foreign Tonnage. Cl'd U. S.
Belgium,	11,580	20,708	2,081	8,529
Hanse Towns,	7,090	13,937	34,600	42,075
Hanover,	.....	.....	1,277	.....
England,	273,622	329,935	166,360	163,174
Scotland,	10,041	12,764	14,473	18,848
Ireland,	221	982	12,581	2,197
Gibraltar,	1,942	6,941	308	1,568
Malta,	378	214	.....	.....
British East Indies,	5,661	5,415	.....	.....
Australia,	299	590	.....	.....
Cape of Good Hope,	.....	406	.....	.....
British African ports,	415	125	446	279
British West Indies,	51,879	75,962	33,905	14,388
British Honduras,	3,156	7,425	65	708
British Guiana,	2,290	6,145	5,716	2,094
British American colonies,	209,808	202,607	214,112	233,092
Other British colonies,	363	93	.....	.....
France on the Atlantic,	95,566	110,171	8,629	11,171
France on the Mediterranean,	11,322	18,167	275	418
Bourbon,	.....	562	.....	.....
French West Indies,	13,874	24,006	6,417	103
French Guiana,	1,173	737	.....	.....
Miquelon, and French fisheries,	216	1,329	.....	226
French African ports,	.....	284	.....	362
Hayti,	16,468	16,606	307	717
Spain on the Atlantic,	10,636	2,298	1,843	302
Spain on the Mediterranean,	6,636	479	1,010	.....
Teneriffe, and other Canaries,	300	486	211	.....
Manilla, and Philippine islands,	4,615	1,401	.....	.....
Cuba,	117,847	136,338	7,069	4,897
Other Spanish West Indies,	33,245	18,361	171	340
Portugal,	6,240	2,557	2,414	543
Madeira,	493	1,657	.....	.....
Fayal, and other Azores,	1,257	742	345	.....
Cape de Verd islands,	335	1,302	.....	167
Italy,	3,143	3,350	527	1,117
Sicily,	10,588	565	1,544	680
Sardinia,	1,705	1,951	954	260
Trieste,	5,239	8,679	.....	1,782
Turkey,	2,853	1,533	.....	.....
Morocco, &c.,	1,022	.....	375	.....
Texas,	16,927	16,185	165	927
Mexico,	23,826	22,727	1,606	2,360
Central America,	1,896	1,802	.....	.....
Venezuela,	9,991	8,030	1,176	684
New Granada,	1,096	1,245	260	.....
Brazil,	32,466	32,066	2,179	1,395
Argentine Republic,	6,836	2,144	200	.....
Cisplatine Republic,	2,755	6,858	.....	393
Chili,	3,186	5,378	.....	.....
Peru,	277	446	.....	.....
South America, generally,	.....	755	.....	.....
China,	13,460	13,532	.....	.....
Europe, generally,	.....	.....	.....	.....
Asia, generally,	823	4,513	.....	.....
Africa, generally,	4,613	3,960	420	140
West Indies, generally,	142	15,038	.....	169
Atlantic ocean,	5,543	3,897	.....	.....
South Seas,	32,396	26,549	.....	.....
Sandwich islands,	1,220	593	.....	.....
Uncertain places,	.....	.....	.....	.....
Total,	1,143,523	1,268,083	534,752	523,943

Statement of the Commerce of each State and Territory, commencing on the 1st of October, 1842, and ending on the 30th of June, 1843.

States and Territories.	VALUE OF EXPORTS.							VALUE OF IMPORTS.		
	DOMESTIC PRODUCE.			FOREIGN PRODUCE.			Total of domestic and for'gn produce.	In American vessels.	In foreign vessels.	Total.
	In American vessels.	In foreign vessels.	Total.	In American vessels.	In foreign vessels.	Total.				
Maine,	$656,855	$23,577	$680,432	$161	$2,298	$2,459	$682,891	$197,673	$52,587	$250,260
New Hampshire,	43,061	1,598	44,659	75	40	115	44,774	5,836	2,453	8,289
Vermont,	141,834	.....	141,834	28,137	.....	28,137	169,971	38,000	.....	38,000
Massachusetts,	4,128,830	301,851	4,430,681	1,620,310	354,216	1,974,526	6,405,207	8,066,249	8,723,203	16,789,452
Rhode Island,	105,292	.....	105,292	555	.....	555	105,847	155,611	147	155,758
Connecticut,	306,950	273	307,223	.....	.....	.....	307,223	229,112	1,729	230,841
New York,	11,093,244	2,349,990	13,443,234	2,393,458	925,972	3,319,430	16,762,664	27,360,920	3,995,620	31,356,540
New Jersey,	8,033	.....	8,033	2,588	.....	2,588	10,621	.....	.....	.....
Pennsylvania,	1,948,644	123,301	2,071,945	275,065	7,938	283,003	2,354,948	2,630,521	130,109	2,760,630
Delaware,	94,362	4,128	98,490	192	.....	192	98,682	1,752	2,933	4,685
Maryland,	2,152,593	667,621	2,820,214	176,705	18,637	195,342	3,015,556	2,179,119	300,013	2,479,132
Dist. of Columbia,	183,451	101,312	284,763	.....	185	185	284,948	62,075	33,367	95,442
Virginia,	1,810,915	143,595	1,954,510	2,637	18	2,655	1,957,165	155,681	31,381	187,062
North Carolina,	168,535	2,564	171,099	.....	.....	.....	171,099	108,739	2,237	110,976
South Carolina,	5,034,953	2,719,199	7,754,152	2,249	4,408	6,657	7,760,809	1,084,653	210,056	1,294,70
Georgia,	2,791,968	1,730,433	4,522,401	.....	.....	.....	4,522,401	146,316	61,116	207,439
Alabama,	7,022,248	4,135,212	11,157,460	.....	.....	.....	11,157,460	239,068	121,587	360,652
Mississippi,	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Louisiana,	21,516,337	5,137,587	26,653,924	443,511	292,989	736,500	27,390,424	7,156,961	1,013,054	8,170,015
Ohio,	10,956	109,152	120,108	.....	.....	.....	120,108	9,454	1,320	10,774
Kentucky,	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	8,145	.....	8,145
Tennessee,	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Michigan,	262,994	.....	262,994	.....	.....	.....	262,994	76,175	195	76,370
Missouri,	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Florida,	625,764	134,571	760,335	174	179	353	760,688	59,815	98,817	158,632
Total,	$60,107,819	$17,685,964	$77,973,783	$4,945,817	$1,606,880	$6,552,697	$84,346,480	$49,971,875	$14,781,924	$64,753,799

STATEMENT—Continued.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	TONNAGE ENTERED THE UNITED STATES.											
	AMERICAN VESSELS.				FOREIGN VESSELS.				TOTAL AMERICAN AND FOREIGN VESSELS.			
	No.	Tons.	Crews.		No.	Tons.	Crews.		No.	Tons.	Crews.	
			Men.	Boys.			Men.	Boys.			Men.	Boys.
Maine,	149	27,197	1,093	56	497	36,490	1,994	46	646	63,687	3,087	102
New Hampshire,	8	2,093	76	7	50	2,230	110	.....	58	4,323	186	7
Vermont,	99	15,538	450	144	.....	.....	.....	.....	99	15,538	450	144
Massachusetts,	685	150,309	7,517	266	568	47,840	3,120	.....	1,253	198,149	10,637	266
Rhode Island,	55	11,726	656	7	3	498	27	.....	58	12,224	683	7
Connecticut,	70	15,956	907	12	17	1,964	97	.....	87	17,920	1,004	12
New York,	1,808	418,594	20,650	1,102	992	177,984	12,424	82	2,800	596,508	33,074	1,184
New Jersey,	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Pennsylvania,	221	42,419	1,835	147	34	5,525	256	55	255	47,944	2,091	202
Delaware,	2	221	14	.....	2	233	13	.....	4	454	27	.....
Maryland,	187	37,134	1,608	.....	68	14,464	705	.....	255	51,598	2,313	.....
Dist. of Columbia,	24	4,559	212	2	19	2,521	136	6	43	7,080	348	8
Virginia,	75	16,271	663	.....	16	2,915	148	.....	91	19,186	811	.....
North Carolina,	156	19,722	972	14	11	1,471	76	.....	167	21,193	1,048	14
South Carolina,	172	39,028	1,697	73	116	41,055	1,502	262	288	80,083	3,199	335
Georgia,	63	18,919	743	.....	78	43,017	1,576	.....	141	61,936	2,319	.....
Alabama,	138	48,892	1,831	.....	96	56,648	1,962	.....	234	105,540	3,793	.....
Mississippi,	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Louisiana,	839	261,802	9,909	.....	233	90,450	3,754	.....	1,072	352,252	13,663	.....
Ohio,	18	1,514	72	.....	46	5,060	250	.....	64	6,574	322	.....
Kentucky,	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Tennessee,	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Michigan,	2	63	5	.....	21	1,892	75	.....	23	1,955	80	.....
Missouri,	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Florida,	101	11,636	774	.....	22	2,495	230	.....	123	14,131	1,004	.....
Total,	4,872	1,143,523	51,684	1,830	2,889	534,752	28,455	451	7,761	1,678,275	80,139	2,281

TONNAGE CLEARED FROM THE UNITED STATES.

States and Territories.	American Vessels.				Foreign Vessels.				Total American and Foreign Vessels.			
	No.	Tons.	Crew.		No.	Tons.	Crews.		No.	Tons.	Crews.	
			Men.	Boys.			Men.	Boys.			Men.	Boys.
Maine,	329	60,453	2,418	169	494	35,974	1,963	45	823	96,427	4,381	214
New Hampshire,	5	1,018	47	12	51	2,256	111	.....	56	3,274	158	12
Vermont,	93	15,359	441	144	.....	.....	.....	.....	93	15,359	441	144
Massachusetts,	669	138,295	7,242	96	566	49,253	3,192	.....	1,235	187,548	10,434	96
Rhode Island,	43	7,645	470	7	.....	.....	.....	.....	43	7,645	470	7
Connecticut,	67	14,113	868	52	19	2,743	129	.....	86	16,856	997	52
New York,	1,684	384,281	18,839	1,106	961	174,374	12,279	84	2,645	558,655	31,118	1,190
New Jersey,	1	130	7	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	130	7	.....
Pennsylvania,	241	41,573	1,909	174	34	5,899	268	51	275	47,472	2,177	225
Delaware,	13	1,949	96	3	3	366	19	.....	16	2,315	115	3
Maryland,	222	41,473	1,930	.....	70	15,431	745	.....	292	56,904	2,675	.....
Dist. of Columbia,	34	5,242	241	6	19	3,001	156	6	53	8,243	397	12
Virginia,	168	34,943	1,483	.....	21	4,353	219	.....	189	39,296	1,702	.....
North Carolina,	233	30,411	1,475	7	11	1,292	73	.....	244	31,703	1,548	7
South Carolina,	261	71,400	2,797	129	123	43,191	1,577	232	384	114,591	4,374	361
Georgia,	131	43,055	1,633	.....	76	42,033	1,462	.....	207	85,088	3,095	.....
Alabama,	200	79,107	2,904	.....	96	55,900	1,988	.....	296	135,007	4,892	.....
Mississippi,	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Louisiana,	808	292,473	10,887	.....	220	80,697	3,317	.....	1,028	373,170	14,204	.....
Ohio,	15	1,245	61	.....	47	5,170	258	.....	62	6,415	319	.....
Kentucky,	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Tennessee,	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Michigan,	5	439	20	.....	17	1,507	59	.....	22	1,946	79	.....
Missouri,	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Florida,	68	3,479	374	.....	20	509	161	.....	88	3,988	535	.....
Total,	5,290	1,268,083	56,142	1,905	2,848	523,949	27,976	418	8,138	1,792,032	84,118	2,323

TONNAGE OF THE SEVERAL DISTRICTS OF THE UNITED STATES.

Statement exhibiting a Condensed View of the Tonnage of the several Districts of the United States, on the 30th of June, 1843.

DISTRICTS.		Registered tonnage.	Enrolled and licensed tonnage. *Tons and 95ths.*	Total tonnage of each dist.
Passamaquoddy,	Maine,.....	2,589 80	5,287 75	7,877 60
Machias,	"	2,406 79	12,318 59	14,725 43
Frenchman's Bay,	"	1,460 01	19,412 36	20,872 37
Penobscot,	"	4,346 25	19,568 34	23,914 59
Belfast,	"	10,787 62	23,035 34	33,823 01
Waldoborough,	"	15,481 27	34,953 38	50,434 65
Wiscasset,	"	4,803 23	8,654 20	13,457 43
Bath,	"	36,117 32	15,284 09	51,401 41
Portland,	"	40,161 38	16,011 35	56,172 73
Saco,	"	1,435 75	2,255 13	3,690 88
Kennebunk,	"	5,418 04	2,420 55	7,838 59
York,	"	.....	2,071 91	2,071 91
Portsmouth,	New Hampshire,.....	13,918 61	8,790 75	22,709 41
Burlington,	Vermont,.....	.....	2,762 86	2,762 86
Newburyport,	Massachusetts,.....	14,362 04	5,324 29	19,686 33
Ipswich,	"	.....	2,378 22	2,378 22
Gloucester,	"	3,254 14	12,799 12	16,053 26
Salem,	"	22,519 52	11,397 63	33,917 20
Marblehead,	"	1,521 27	7,343 50	8,864 77
Boston,	"	165,482 69	37,116 44	202,599 18
Plymouth,	"	8,086 05	9,102 53	17,188 58
Fall River,	"	3,393 76	6,526 54	9,920 35
New Bedford,	"	83,056 69	17,024 74	100,081 48
Barnstable,	"	5,626 81	35,823 39	41,450 25
Edgartown,	"	7,200 82	1,619 28	8,820 15
Nantucket,	"	27,840 15	6,502 62	34,342 77
Providence,	Rhode Island,.....	13,646 86	5,787 28	19,434 19
Bristol,	"	10,746 16	3,029 36	13,775 52
Newport,	"	6,873 82	5,542 37	12,416 24
Middletown,	Connecticut,.....	723 89	9,340 09	10,064 03
New London,	"	25,118 60	10,272 64	35,391 29
Stonington,	"	1,729 81	3,214 28	4,944 14
New Haven,	"	4,570 82	6,041 73	10,612 60
Fairfield,	"	.....	9,265 94	9,265 94
Champlain,	New York,.....	.....	2,510 15	2,510 15
Sackett's Harbor,	"	.....	4,991 84	4,991 84
Oswego,	"	.....	7,420 47	7,420 47
Niagara,	"	.....	112 08	112 08
Genesee,	"	.....	249 05	249 05
Oswegatchie,	"	.....	987 01	987 01
Buffalo Creek,	"	.....	17,939 80	17,939 80
Sag Harbor,	"	16,841 29	6,047 21	22,888 50
New York,	"	237,240 29	259,725 27	496,965 56
Cape Vincent,	"	.....	2,970 30	2,970 30
Perth Amboy,	New Jersey,.....	.....	18,969 70	18,969 70
Bridgetown,	"	372 65	10,020 77	10,393 47
Burlington,	"	.....	3,951 92	3,951 92
Camden,	"	.....	6,408 76	6,408 76
Newark,	"	266 04	8,743 72	9,009 76
Little Egg Harbor,	"	.....	5,263 18	5,263 18
Great Egg Harbor,	"	.....	9,382 04	9,382 04
Philadelphia,	Pennsylvania,.....	39,445 84	64,894 59	104,340 48
Presqu'isle,	"	.....	2,766 55	2,766 55
Pittsburgh,	"	.....	4,942 69	4,942 69
Wilmington,	Delaware,.....	2,266 77	3,806 98	6,072 75
Newcastle,	"	.....	4,248 53	4,248 53
Baltimore,	Maryland,.....	41,245 41	33,580 20	74,825 61

TONNAGE OF THE SEVERAL DISTRICTS OF THE UNITED STATES—Continued.

exhibiting a Condensed View of the Tonnage of the several Districts of the United States, on the 30th of June, 1843.

TRICTS.		Registered tonnage.	Enrolled and licensed tonnage. *Tons and 95ths.*	Total tonnage of each dist.
	Maryland,.....	.....	9,631 59	9,631 59
	"	336 75	12,053 69	12,390 49
l,	"	.....	6,511 17	6,511 17
k,	"	.....	1,442 47	1,442 47
ek,	"	.....	1,539 57	1,539 57
,	"	.....	2,678 21	2,678 21
vn,	District of Columbia,.	2,288 11	6,521 67	8,809 78
a,	"	7,267 36	3,450 21	10,717 57
	Virginia,.....	10,345 87	7,581 04	17,926 91
g,	"	2,346 31	1,072 14	3,418 45
l,	"	4,326 35	2,920 51	7,246 86
k,	"	.....	2,906 51	2,906 51
r,	"	.....	2,309 84	2,309 84
nock,	"	501 93	4,445 81	4,947 79
ding,	"	.....	2,764 77	2,764 77
o,	"	.....	3,091 69	3,091 69
ne,	"	.....	1,377 67	1,377 67
,	"	.....	1,212 34	1,212 34
on,	North Carolina,.....	10,410 41	3,530 46	13,940 87
	"	1,954 40	2,094 62	4,094 07
on,	"	1,404 23	2,387 01	3,791 24
	"	158 03	618 74	776 77
	"	1,257 71	7,856 17	9,113 88
	"	.....	1,563 85	1,563 85
,	"	808 34	948 41	1,756 75
,	"	1,282 19	914 60	2,196 79
n,	South Carolina,.....	10,841 05	9,870 74	20,711 79
vn,	"	320 94	543 89	864 88
	"	.....	.....	.....
,	Georgia,.....	2,728 80	6,715 85	15,444 73
	"	.....	.....	.....
k,	"	835 94	779 61	1,615 60
,	"	.....	.....	.....
l,	"	28 79	310 20	339 04
,	Florida,.....	995 16	751 69	1,746 85
tine,	"	407 89	212 46	620 40
ola,	"	1,700 86	3,183 60	4,884 51
s,	"	.....	92 20	92 20
,	"	.....	197 00	197 00
l,	"	1,794 27	710 38	2,504 65
	Alabama,.....	6,646 58	9,447 85	16,094 48
r,	Mississippi,.....	.....	.....	.....
ana,	Louisiana,.....	49,957 60	99,452 06	149,409 66
	"	.....	657 09	657 09
	Missouri,.....	.....	13,589 38	13,589 38
,	Tennessee,.....	.....	4,813 08	4,813 08
,	Kentucky,.....	.....	5,093 18	5,093 18
,	Ohio,.....	.....	13,679 58	13,679 58
,	"	.....	2,656 73	2,656 73
l,	"	.....	11,675 13	11,675 13
	"	.....	1,446 57	1,446 57
	Michigan,.....	.....	12,259 59	12,259 59
ckinac,	"	.....	430 60	430 60
Total,.....		1,009,305 01	1,149,297 92	2,158,602 93

VESSELS BUILT IN EACH STATE AND TERRITORY OF THE UNITED STATES, IN 1843.

Statement of the number and class of vessels built, and the tonnage thereof, in each State and Territory of the United States, for the three quarters ending on the 30th June, 1843.

States.	Ships.	Brigs.	Schrs.	Sl'ps & canal-boats.	Steam-boats.	Total No. built.	TOTAL TONNAGE. Tons. 95ths.
Maine,.....	25	21	25	...	...	71	15,120 90
New Hampshire,.....	...	...	1	1	...	2	233 76
Massachusetts,.....	20	2	15	3	...	40	9,974 01
Rhode Island,.....	...	...	1	...	...	1	119 80
Connecticut, ...	...	1	1	6	4	12	1,063 80
New York,.....	5	2	9	103	5	124	13,298 68
New Jersey, ...	...	...	9	8	2	19	1,480 01
Pennsylvania,.....	3	3	2	35	20	63	6,739 72
Delaware,.....	...	1	1	...	1	3	245 63
Maryland,.....	4	1	33	...	1	39	3,678 91
District of Columbia,	...	...	...	11	...	11	276 13
Virginia,.....	1	...	5	2	1	9	693 77
North Carolina,.....	...	3	18	...	...	21	2,000 19
South Carolina,.....	...	...	...	1	1	2	206 13
Georgia,.....	...	...	1	...	...	1	45 09
Ohio,.....	...	...	6	...	25	31	5,194 69
Tennessee,.....	...	...	...	...	2	2	322 27
Kentucky, ...	...	...	...	...	11	11	1,664 18
Missouri,.....	...	...	...	...	...	...	.....
Alabama,.....	...	...	1	1	...	2	144 24
Michigan,.....	...	...	4	1	...	5	304 89
Mississippi,.....	...	...	6	1	1	8	288 05
Florida,.....	...	...	...	...	5	5	522 42
Total,.....	58	34	138	173	79	482	63,617 77

NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

DREW'S PLAN FOR PREVENTING SHIPS FROM BECOMING HOGGED.

A most ingenious model has fallen under our observation, (says the United Service Journal, London,) of which Captain Drew is the inventor, for strengthening ships of war, so as to make it all but impossible they shall become hogged. To steam vessels of the larger class, the adoption of this simple and comparatively inexpensive machinery, will prove of most vital importance. The immense weight of the engines requisite for a steamship, render her more than ordinarily liable to break amidships. Captain Drew's plan was, we are told, suggested by the ingenious and admirably effective operation, lately performed on the Penelope. The grand feature of his project is to relieve a steam vessel from the vast weight of machinery amidships, and to throw it upon two distant parts of the ship, much more capable of sustaining it; and if there be any one vessel to which such an adjunct will be more especially necessary than another, it is the Penelope, whose machinery will be placed exactly in the space occupied by the sixty feet of timber which remains to be added to its length. Captain Drew's plan consists of two longitudinal pieces of timber, firmly trussed together, constructed on something like the principle of the arch of a bridge, which will be capable of bearing an immense weight. These bearers are to be covered by a platform for the machinery, of four inch plank; so that the strongest part of the vessel will, in future, be that which has hitherto proved the weakest. It is *well known* that the unfortunate President was broken-backed before she left the British *channel, on her last* trip, from the immense weight of her machinery amidships, *the undoubted cause of* her melancholy catastrophe. The owners of the British Queen are, we

are told, about to cut her in two, for the purpose of avoiding a similar catastrophe; and it is well known that the long steam vessels running in Canada seldom last more than five or six years, from the same cause. If, therefore, Captain Drew's plan should realize the expectations we have formed of it, it cannot fail of proving of most vital importance to the navy at large, and to steamships in particular. We had almost forgotten to notice another important advantage that will be gained by Captain Drew's plan. The circumstance of the machinery being placed upon a platform that will be, to some extent, elastic, will obviate, in a great degree, that constant jar, which is so trying to the timbers of a steamship, and so inconvenient to its occupants. We have the greater pleasure in speaking of this invention as we think it deserves, inasmuch as we have understood that Captain Drew has no interested motive in placing it before the public. He seeks no patent, and desires no reward beyond the credit of being instrumental in preserving not only valuable property, but human life from destruction. We need hardly add that this is precisely the sort of projector in whose opinions we are inclined to repose the greatest confidence.

DESCRIPTION OF A SHOAL OFF ST. CROIX.

The Rev. Wm. C. Woodbridge, the geographer, in viewing the astronomical observatory of Major Lang, surveyor-general of the island of St. Croix, learned that there was a shoal off the east end of the island, not laid down in the charts, but on which the breakers were sometimes heard, as well as seen, from that elevated spot. Finding, subsequently, that it was unknown to most American captains, and that the ship in which he had sailed found herself unexpectedly upon it, he requested an account of it from Major Lang, which we give below:—

Major Lang's Remarks on the extensive Bank E. N. E. of the Eastern extremity of St. Croix.

The eastern point of St. Croix is in lat. 17. 45. 30. N., lon. 64. 34. W. The eastern point of Buck island, lat. 17. 47. 18. N., lon. 64. 36. 40. W. A. Lang's observatory, (elevation 440 feet,) lat. 17. 44. 32. N., lon. 64. 41. W.

Full nine nautical miles N. E. by E., ½ E., from the E. end of St. Croix, and about eleven nautical miles E. by N. from the E. point of Buck island, commences the eastern extremity of an extensive bank, or shoal, the northern limits of which round off thence to the N. W., soon afterwards stretch westerly, inclining at last to the southward of a westerly direction, towards Buck island eastern shoals, with which it may be considered as connected. The northern edge of this shoal is a narrow coral ledge, of several miles in length, on which five and a half fathoms of water is the least depth yet found—the more common depth being six, six and a half, and seven fathoms.

Along the whole line of the northern edge, and to the very eastern extremity of the bank, where there is not less than seven fathoms water, I have observed the sea to break in an awful manner, during severe gales of wind; and sometimes, also, in moderate weather, during the great northerly ground-swell, which occasionally sets in during the winter months.

A line of direction drawn from my observatory, E. 24. 15. 30. N., passed through the shortest part of the northern edge of this coral ledge, through its whole length, until it approaches the eastern limits of the shoal, where it rounds off to the S. E. and S., as far as the bearing E. 15. 50. N. from my position. I consider its most eastern part to bear from my observatory E. 17. 20. N., which will place it in lat. 17. 49. 25. N., lon. 64. 24. 40. W. from Greenwich, having there seven fathoms and a half; which, in coming from the eastward, you at once strike, from an ocean depth. At this spot, the E. end of St. Croix is distant nine and three-quarters nautical miles, and the E. end of Buck island about eleven and a half nautical miles. In approaching the northern edge of the shoal from the northward, you at once get from an ocean depth upon its shoalest part; passing which, and standing to the S., the water gradually deepens, on a clear sand bottom, during the short time taken in crossing *the bank, when* standing in this direction.

The bearings from my position are given from the true meridian, taken from my astro*nomical circle. The bank is the resort* of many whales during spring and summer.

PRIVILEGE OF AMERICAN WHALE SHIPS AT NEW ZEALAND.

Information has been received at the department of state, at Washington, (July 25th, 1844,) from the United States Consulate at the Bay of Islands, New Zealand, that the governor of that colony has been pleased to permit, at its instance, American whale ships to land their cargoes of oil in the ports of New Zealand, for exportation either to England or the United States; thereby giving the ships an opportunity of refitting, without the delay or exposure of returning to the United States.

A change has recently been made in the port dues of Sidney, N. S. W., which, as regards whale ships, is illustrated by two visits of the Tuscaloosa, of New Bedford—one previous, the other subsequent to the change. On the first, she paid £22 8*s.* 2*d.*; on the second, £10 19*s.* 2*d.*; of which £6 might have been saved, had she not taken a pilot.

A PRACTICAL LIFE PRESERVER.

A very simple instrument has just been introduced here, called the "Liancourt Nautilus." For convenience and safety, it is as perfect as possible. It is a harmonicon, without the musical part. It consists of two oval tin plates, as large as a man's hand, connected by a spiral wire, capable of being extended to the length of three feet. This wire is covered by a water-proof bag, or sleeve, the ends of which are sealed to the plates. The whole affair, when compressed together, is about five inches long, by four thick. Through one of the tin plates is a hole, closed by a clapper on the inside. Take a plate in each hand, and draw them apart to the length of the bag, and the machine is inflated. The wire keeps the bag distended, so that the air would press out very slowly, even if a small hole were to exist. It has been adopted already, by the admiralty service of both France and England.

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

A LUCRATIVE COMMERCIAL ENTERPRISE.

It is stated in the Liverpool Journal, of June 22d, 1844, that in the most distressing period of the cotton trade, 1841, and when the relations with China were anything but settled, a Manchester merchant formed the resolution of speculating in 30,000 pieces of low shirtings, for which the purchaser paid 6*s.* 8*d.* per piece; the whole outlay being just £10,000. The entire of this large purchase, as to numbers of pieces, if not in amount, were shipped to Manilla, where the goods arrived most opportune. A quick sale took place; and the returns, after paying all costs and charges, netted rather over £20,000. Bills for such an amount were then out of the question, and the proceeds were invested in silk. The silk, too, proved an equally good spec; the lucky owner having again doubled his investment; i. e., sold the silk for more than £40,000. Perhaps a more fortunate speculation is not on record; and all this, too, was accomplished, it is said, in less than twelve months.

COMMERCIAL VALUE OF OLD PAINTINGS IN ENGLAND.

A sale of rare pictures, by the great masters, took place recently, at Messrs. Christie's rooms, King-street, St. James's, London, (Eng.,) late the property of Mr. John Prentice, of Great Yarmouth; and, though the collection only numbered sixteen subjects, they were of the highest class, the total sum realized being nearly 19,000*l.* Rubens's "Judgment of Paris" produced 4,000 guineas, and "Lot and his Daughters leaving Sodom," 1,600 guineas; both purchased by Mr. Eastlake, curator of the National Gallery.

THE GUANO TRADE.

This new branch of commercial enterprise is attracting the attention of the British government; and it has been stated in Parliament that it had already been of signal benefit to the declining mercantile marine of England, more than six hundred vessels being now engaged in the trade. It will, we presume, awaken the commercial spirit of the northern states, as it will undoubtedly open to their citizens a profitable branch of trade, which they are never slow to embrace.

The small island of Ichaboe, on the west coast of Africa, lat. 26 deg. 18 min. S., long. 14 deg. 58 min. E., is said to be covered with this manure, to the depth of thirty feet. The island is small, being not above one mile in circumference. In the month of December last, there were twenty ships in the harbor, or road formed between the island and the main land, beside a dozen more in search of the island. The article itself cost not a farthing, and it is estimated in England to be worth £8 per ton, or about 18 10 cents per lb. Genuine guano, it is believed, has never been found except on places seemingly of volcanic origin, and almost always in situations where gannets, penguins, and seals, are in the habit of resorting. The space on the west coast of Africa, from Orange river, in lat. 28 deg. 23 min. S., long. 16 deg. 22 min. E., to Hallam's Bird island, in lat. 24 deg. 38 min. S., long. 14 deg. 22 min. E., lies between the British and Portuguese possessions in Southern Africa, and is claimed by no nation; and, consequently, any adventurer may have guano for the taking.

It is stated, in the Edinburgh New Philosophical Journal, that the birds on the island of Ichaboe are a kind of penguin, and cannot fly to any distance, if at all, their wings being a kind of fin. It is believed that the captain of the vessel, (said to be Mr. Parr, of the Anne, of Bristol,) who brought the guano, was the first human being who set foot on the island, there being no harbor, and a heavy surf. On walking on it, he could scarcely set his foot without treading on the birds, and they took no notice whatever of him, except pecking at his feet, he being barefoot; and, on a gun being fired, they merely fluttered a good deal, and made much noise. There is no fresh water, it is believed, for some hundreds of miles along the coast, and no rain. A writer in the last Nautical Magazine very facetiously says:—"Some persons in Liverpool, it is said, allege that they have possessed the sovereignty of the Guano islands; but, as there are no human inhabitants upon them, and the natives of the adjacent continent (who are described as civil and harmless) have neither boat nor canoe, the 'soi disant' sovereigns must have contracted with a King Penguin, had the contracts stamped by a Fur-Seal, and witnessed by the requisite number of Gannets."

That the trade is beginning to awaken the commercial spirit of the United States, is evident from the fact that the ship Orpheus arrived at Baltimore, in July last, with four hundred tons of guano; and Captain Wickham S. Havens, of the Thomas Dickinson, brought a quantity from one of the islands, on his return to Sag Harbor, Long Island.

The Newburyport Herald says that the ship Shakspeare, of 747 tons, is now fitting out at Lewis's wharf, Boston, for the coast of Africa, to load with guano. Several English vessels sailed from New York, last week, for the same destination. Guano is worth in England $60 to $80 per ton, and an immense trade has grown up there in the article, no less than 700 English vessels being engaged in the business at last dates.

We see, by an advertisement in the American Agriculturalist, that J. M. Thorburn & Co., of New York, have received, by a late arrival from Liverpool, a few hundred weight of the Ichaboe guano, pure as imported from Africa, being taken direct from a ship that arrived at the Liverpool docks. Some idea of the value of the article may be gained from the fact that it is sold by Mr. Thorburn, in New York, at $6 per hundred pounds, or $1 per sixteen *pounds, and from $60 to* $80 per ton, in England.

We notice, in late English papers, an apparatus advertised, by which it is stated that

any one can, in five minutes, form a pretty accurate estimate of the value of guano. The immense increase of shipping now employed in England in this trade, seem to prove two things:—First, that the experiments there, this season, have convinced the most skeptical of the immense value of this manure; and, secondly, that there is no doubt of vessels obtaining cargoes; for those who have so recently returned from the African coast would certainly not go back, if there was any chance of the quantity being exhausted; and the accounts of the crews, to this effect, would have deterred others; lessening, instead of increasing the number of vessels—so that, if we do not now get plenty of guano, of the right kind, to supply our agriculture next year, it will be our own fault.

It is stated in the city article of a late number of the London Times, that a new use has been discovered of the article guano, which was never anticipated. Hitherto, it has been merely looked upon as applicable to agricultural purposes, but now the rumor goes that it may be employed in the manufacture of a certain color.

The Liverpool (Eng.) Times says:—"The guano trade has already greatly relieved British shipping, and put an end to the ruinous competition for freights, which had then for some time existed; but we had not, at that time, any idea of the number of vessels which have gone to the African coast in search of this new manure. We have since learned that it is not less than 600, at the lowest estimate; and that some persons even estimate it as high as 800, a great number of them being very large ships. It is, therefore, no wonder that the taking up so many vessels at good freights, and the withdrawing them from the usual trade, has had a good effect on freights, and on the demand for shipping everywhere."

THE FRESH FISH TRADE OF BOSTON.

It affords us pleasure to record, in the pages of the Merchants' Magazine, the successful commercial enterprises of the nation; especially when the tendency of such operations is to diffuse the comforts and innocent luxuries of life, and place them within the means of all classes of society. The ice trade of Boston, it is well known, has become not only an important branch of commerce, affording employment to many of that worthy class of men who earn their bread by the sweat of their brow, but has enriched the first adventurer in the trade, besides furnishing the inhabitants of tropical climates with one of the greatest luxuries nature yields.

The following statement, derived from the Boston Morning Post, gives a pretty good idea of the progress of the fresh fish trade of Boston, and is worthy of record in the pages of a work designed to furnish a history of the various movements in commercial industry, and shadow forth the spirit and genius of an enterprising people. It also illustrates the commercial advantages of the railroad system, so successfully adopted by the citizens of Massachusetts:—

"The season in which fish are taken, for the purpose of being forwarded fresh to New York and Philadelphia, and the cities of the interior, generally extends from the 1st of December to the 1st of May. This year, however, it did not close until about the 1st of June. The fish caught are principally halibut, cod, and haddock. Messrs. Holbrook, Smith & Co., on Commercial street, (who were among the first, and are still the principal dealers,) have politely furnished us with an account of their sales for the past season, and estimates of the sales of others engaged in the business; from which it appears that there were brought to the city and sold, by the firm named, 934,000 pounds of halibut, and 386,000 pounds of cod and haddock; by others, 92,000 pounds of halibut, and 322,000 pounds of cod and haddock. Total, 1,734,000 pounds. Of this quantity, there was forwarded to Philadelphia, by Messrs. Holbrook, Smith & Co., of halibut, 8,874 pounds; to New York, of halibut and cod, mostly the first, 164,428 pounds; to Albany *and Troy, 100,000* pounds. Forwarded by other dealers, to New York, 83,300 pounds; *to Albany and Troy,* 50,000 pounds. Total amount forwarded to four cities, *405,602 pounds.*

The average number of vessels engaged in the halibut fishery has been about 30, and in the cod and haddock fishery the same number; making 60 in all. The average number of men employed has been about 400, and the amount of tonnage 3,000 tons. The city market boats, and the fish caught by them, it will be observed, are not included in this statement. The vessels are owned principally on Cape Ann and Cape Cod, and a more active and temperate set of men than their crews can nowhere be found. The cold water principle is fully carried out among them. The length of their voyages varies from six days to a fortnight, and the vessels are so constructed as to admit of a constant flow of the sea water into a part of their holds, in which *the fish are brought alive to the wharves.* The importance to which the trade has attained is undoubtedly attributable, in a high degree, to this circumstance; as it is the perfect freshness of the fish that gives them their greatest value. Every morning, upon the arrival of the vessels, the halibut are hauled upon deck, and killed. They are then immediately packed in boxes, with ice, and despatched to the several railroads, so that, on the evening of the same day, or the next morning, they may be smoking upon the tables of Albany or Troy, two hundred miles in the interior, as fresh and delicate as the fish eaten on the sea shore. One vessel will sometimes bring in 400 halibut, weighing from 50 to 200 pounds each, and the scene of slaughter which ensues is indescribable. Blood literally streams from her scuppers; and the fish are cut up and packed with such celerity, that their muscles continue to quiver after the last nail is driven into the box. In all other respects, the trade is conducted (especially by the principal house engaged in it) with remarkable prudence and energy; and we doubt not that it will continue to extend, as increased facilities are afforded, and ever go to illustrate the manner in which the iron roads bind our Union together, by making the people of the east and the west, the north and the south, necessary to each other."

LAFITTE, THE FRENCH BANKER;

OR, A FORTUNE MADE BY PICKING UP A PIN.

Important results often follow from the most trifling incidents. A remarkable case of this kind is related in an English paper, respecting Lafitte, the French banker, and which was the foundation of the immense fortune he afterwards accumulated. When he came to Paris, in 1788, the extent of his ambition was to find a situation in a banking-house; and to attain this object, he called on M. Perregeaux, the rich Swiss banker, to whom he had a letter of introduction. This gentleman had just taken possession of the hotel of Mademoiselle Gurmard, which had been put up in a lottery by that lady, and won by the fortunate banker. It was to this charming habitation, which has since been demolished, that M. Lafitte paid his first visit in Paris; and, as it were, took his first step in the Parisian world. The young provincial—poor and modest, timid and anxious—entered by that gateway which had witnessed so many gayeties in the last century. He was introduced into the boudoir of the danseuse, then become the cabinet of the banker, and there modestly stated the object of his visit.

"It is impossible for me to admit you into my establishment, at least for the present," replied the banker; "all my offices have their full complement. If I require any one at a future time, I will see what can be done; but, in the meantime, I advise you to seek elsewhere, for I do not expect to have a vacancy for some time."

With a disappointed heart, the young aspirant for employment left the office; and while, with a downcast look, he traversed the courtyard, he stooped to pick up a pin which lay in his path, and which he carefully stuck in the lappel of his coat. Little did he think that this trivial action was to decide his future fate; but so it was. From the window of his cabinet, M. Perregeaux had observed the action of the young man. The Swiss banker was one of those keen observers of human actions who estimate the value of circumstances apparently trifling in themselves, and which would pass unnoticed by the majority of mankind. He was delighted with the conduct of the young stranger. In this simple action, he saw the revelation of a character. It was a guarantee of a love of order and economy, a certain pledge of all the qualities which should be possessed by a good financier. *A young man who would pick* up a pin, could not fail to make a good clerk, merit

the confidence of his employer, and obtain a high degree of prosperity. In the evening of the same day, M. Lafitte received the following note from M. Perregeaux:—

"A place is made for you in my office, which you may take possession of to-morrow morning."

The anticipations of the banker were not deceived. The young Lafitte possessed every desirable quality, and even more than was at first expected. From simple clerk, he soon rose to be cashier, then partner, then head of the first banking-house in Paris; and afterwards, in rapid succession, a Deputy, and President of the Council of Ministers, the highest point to which a citizen can aspire. On what a trifle does the fortune of a man sometimes depend! But for the simple incident of the pin, M. Lafitte would, perhaps, never have entered the house of M. Perregeaux; another employer might not have opened to him so wide a field of action, and his talents and intelligence would not have led to such magnificent results. Little did M. Perregeaux think that the hand which would pick up a pin was that of a man generous to prodigality in doing good—a hand always open to succor honorable misfortune. Never were riches placed in better hands; never did banker or prince make a more noble use of them.

SMELTING COPPER ORE IN THE UNITED STATES.

To the Editor of the Merchants' Magazine:—

Dear Sir—I was much pleased with a letter which appeared in the last number of your excellent periodical, from George Ditson, Esq., Vice-Consul of the United States at Neuvitas, on the subject of the copper mines of Cuba; suggesting, also, the great benefit which would accrue to the manufacturing, as well as the commercial interests of the country, by the establishment of smelting works in the neighborhood of New York; in which opinion, I perfectly agree with him.

As New York is the great emporium of American commerce, it is consequently the port where most of the foreign, as well as American copper ores, are sent, to be shipped to England, for smelting. No better place, therefore, could be selected for the establishment of copper works, than somewhere in this neighborhood; and, in my opinion, Red Hook Point, near the south end of the Atlantic dock, would be a most eligible location; as there is every facility there for discharging cargoes of copper ore, as well as coal for smelting it, and ample space for the erection of suitable buildings, not only for smelting the ore into cakes, but for drawing the copper into bars, and rolling it into sheets. The establishment of copper works would also give an impulse to *copper mining operations throughout the Union*, as there would then be a ready market for all the American copper ore raised, without sending it to England to be smelted; and, by amalgamating American ores with foreign, better copper, (as to the temper and malleability of it,) could be made, than from one kind of copper ore, only. Moreover, the copper made here could be sold cheaper than that which is imported; as the freight and insurance on the ore sent to England, as well as on the manufactured copper sent back again, would be saved—independent of the duty on the ore, (£4 10*s.* per ton,) and the other heavy charges upon the importation of it into England. I think these are good and sufficient reasons for the establishment of copper works near New York; and coming, as they do, from one who was formerly engaged as a mineral broker in England, and is *practically acquainted with the modus operandi* of sampling, assaying, roasting, and smelting copper ores, they may be well worthy of the consideration of those who feel interested in the matter. The establishment of such works, independent of the great advantage they would be to the country in a national and commercial point of view, would also be a very profitable investment *of capital, for those* who might embark in the undertaking; and, hoping soon to see them *in operation,* I remain, dear sir, yours, respectfully, J. T. BAILEY.

Freeman Hunt, Esq., Editor of the Merchants' Magazine.

GIGANTIC COMMERCIAL ENTERPRISE.

A highly important hydraulic work has been projected, and is now in rapid progress of execution, as we learn from Murray's Hand-Book for Travellers in France, that will vie with our far-famed and magnificent Croton works, that now supply the commercial emporium of our country with an abundance of pure water. It is under the able direction of Montricher. The canal that is to supply Marseilles, will derive its water from the Durance, near to the suspension bridge at Pertuis; and this will be conducted by open cutting and tunnelling, for a distance of fifty-one miles, through a most mountainous and difficult country, until it reaches the arid territory of Marseilles, where it will be employed for the supply of the city, as well as for irrigation, and giving activity to various branches of industry which require water-power. The section and fall of this canal is calculated to pass eleven tons of water per second; and its levels are so disposed, that this quantity of water will arrive near to the city, at an elevation of four hundred feet above the level of the sea. Perhaps no work of this description has been attempted, either in ancient or modern times, more hardy in its conception, or more really useful in its effects. Three chains of limestone mountains are already pierced by the ten miles of tunnels which are required to conduct this stream; and an aqueduct, which is to convey it across the river Arc, (about five miles from Aix,) is now in construction. Its elevation above the river will be two hundred and sixty-two feet. The design for this gigantic structure is in excellent taste; and as a work of art, it will not suffer comparison from the famous Pont du Gard, which it will much surpass, both in altitude and size. The estimated cost of this canal is upwards of twenty millions of dollars, and this sum is raised by the city of Marseilles, without aid from government. The profit to the stockholders, arising from this work, will be principally from supplying water for irrigation; as the value of land in such a climate is quadrupled, if water can be applied to it.

AMERICAN FUR COMPANY'S STORES.

The St. Louis Reveille furnishes the following brief sketch of the stores occupied by the American Fur Company, at St. Louis, which gives a slight idea of the extensive manner of conducting the fur trade:—

"The present are two large, fire-proof structures, recently built, but with one door of connection, which, in case of fire, may be closed up with double iron shutters, fitting air-tight in the wall; so that one building may burn, and the other remain cool as an ice-cellar. Spacious vaults and cellars, constructed of native rock, range beneath the front warehouse; and offices of convenience extend under the sidewalk of the street, having a subterranean let-off cut through the solid rock to the river. Through this, runs the superflux of rain from the roofs, after the cisterns are supplied; and thus a high state of cleanliness is constantly preserved. Upon the first floor, ranging level with the street, are the director's rooms, and clerk's offices, together with an immense iron apartment, imbedded in brick, with vents in the wall for heat to escape, and sitting upon a solid foundation of stone. Ætna might belch lava upon it, and the books would be safe! Above that, is an extensive room, running the whole length of the building, where huge bales of blankets, furs, boxes of hardware, and other necessaries of the trade, are stored. The floors above are divided into various wholesale and retail stores, some exclusively for traders, others for Indians. The large trader is led to one store, the poor trapper to another, and the Indian to another. There is no great subtlety and skill required in managing well the complicated peculiarities of the trade. The rear warehouse presents the appearance of an immense factory. A great number of men are constantly in active employ, sorting and arranging skins; *packing, pressing,* and putting them away in bales—a machine being *used, in the operation of pressing,* similar in principle, though smaller, of course, than a *New Orleans cotton press.*

"HE WILL NEVER MAKE A MERCHANT."

The morality of a distinguished divine of the present day, that the making the best of one's knowledge in buying and selling, or, in other words, the seller's taking the advantage of the purchaser's ignorance, is quite questionable; or, more plainly, to use the language of the Author of the only standard of morality in Christendom, it is not "doing to others as we would they should do to us." If, however, the ministers of Christianity inculcate such a standard, is it surprising that there are occasionally to be found persons engaged in trade who, like the dry-goods merchant mentioned in the following recital of an actual occurrence, boldly admit that an honest boy "will never make a merchant?"

A gentleman from the country placed his son with a merchant in —— street. For a time, all went on well. At length a lady came to the store to purchase a silk dress, and the young man waited on her. The price demanded was agreed to, and he proceeded to fold the goods. He discovered, before he had finished, a flaw in the silk; and, pointing it out to the lady, said, "Madam, I deem it my duty to tell you there is a fracture in this silk." Of course, she did not take it. The merchant overheard the remark, and immediately wrote to the father of the young man, to come and take him home; "for," said he, "*he will never make a merchant.*" The father, who had ever reposed confidence in his son, was much grieved, and hastened to the city, to be informed of his deficiencies. "Why will he not make a merchant?" asked he. "Because he has no tact," was the answer. "Only a day or two ago, he told a lady, *voluntarily*, who was buying silk of him, that the goods were damaged; and I lost the bargain. Purchasers must look out for themselves. If they cannot discover flaws, it would be foolishness of me to tell them of their existence." "And is that all his fault?" asked the parent. "Yes," answered the merchant; "he is very well in other respects." "Then I love my son better than ever, and I thank you for telling me of the matter. I would not have him another day in your store for the world."

AN INSTANCE OF COMMERCIAL INTEGRITY.

Are the instances of merchants who fail in business, pay a per centage, and are released from their *legal* obligations, and who afterwards succeed, and voluntarily come forward, and cancel the *moral* obligation, of paying to the uttermost farthing of their indebtedness, so rare, that we see it occasionally announced as an exception to the general rule? or is it want of future success, and inability to liquidate such obligations? We have frequently had occasion to record, in the pages of this Magazine, examples of commercial integrity; and it affords us pleasure to add another to the list, which we copy from the New Bedford Bulletin. "We learn with much gratification," says the Bulletin, "that the late esteemed firm of George O. Crocker & Co., of this town, which suspended payment, and made an assignment about two years ago, having outstanding liabilities, announce that, by reason of subsequent success in business, and through the aid of their friends, they are now ready to meet the deficit of said firm, principal and interest, amounting to rising thirty thousand dollars; and that all demands against them are adjusted as fast as they are presented. Such instances of commercial honor and high-minded integrity are but too rare, and cannot be too highly commended. We envy these gentlemen the proud satisfaction which they must feel in thus being able to render justice to their creditors, and wish them what they eminently deserve—a career of increased prosperity in their future enterprises."

ERRATA.—In the article on "Labor—its Relations, in Europe and the United States, compared," commencing on page 217 of the present number, on page 218, fifteen lines from the top, for "they have," read "it has;" same page, 23 lines from bottom, for "courted," read "*coveted.*" On page 220, 1st line, for "permission to enjoy," read "assurance of *enjoying.*" *Same page, 13th line from the top, for "circumstantial," read "circumscribed." On page 222, 4th line from top, for "one," read "our."*

THE BOOK TRADE.

iosities of Literature, and the Literary Character Illustrated. By I. C. D'Is-
, Esq., D. C. L., F. S. A. With Curiosities of American Literature. By Rufus
riswold. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

book is a most valuable acquisition to our standard library literature, and both edi-
publishers deserve credit for the manner in which they have respectively discharged
ties. We have inadvertently omitted to notice the appearance of this work for
ne; and we have now the pleasure of saying that its success since publication has
ly equal to what was anticipated. The sale has been good, and regularly increa-
id shows that the taste for valuable and costly works is steadily reviving. The
ion of this book—the "Curiosities of Literature," by D'Israeli—has been, for a
e, popular with the public, both in Great Britain and the United States; and we
ur readers that the moiety added by Mr. Griswold is quite worthy of the place it
. American literature, although as yet scarcely emerged from its infancy, is
by the copious results of Mr. Griswold's researches, to be rich in interesting inci-
id piquant peculiarities. These are collated in a pleasing manner, and arrest
ntion of the reader equally, whether he is in search of amusement or instruc-
Ir. Griswold goes back into the very earliest periods of our history as a people—
nd the period when we first began to be a *nation*—for the materials of his work;
reader will be no less surprised than delighted to find how many of the literary
those times have been thus snatched from the grasp of oblivion. One thing, in
these "Curiosities of American Literature," has struck us with peculiar force.
habit of the very earliest English travellers who visited the United States, to mis-
t and abuse both the land and its inhabitants—a disposition which, it must be con-
hey have kept in active operation, even to the present day. "Such are the lying
ties of the English nation who stay at home," says one of the Puritans, "that it
much of our time and substance to refute their wicked calumnies." Not only
io staid at home, but those who "went abroad for their health," (that is, as it ap-
one instance, at least, to escape a *stricture around the throat*,) were quite as bitter
commentaries upon this country, as the Halls, Trollopes, Marryatts, and Feather-
ghs of the present day. The first of these gentry, of whom honorable mention is
one Mr. Cross, who "had been convicted of forgery, and sentenced to be hang-
who, after some time, obtained the favor of transportation." He did us the honor
ip his residence in Pennsylvania; against the inhabitants of which peaceful pro-
wrote a book, which "contayned far more lyes than veritys." We have never
e trouble to examine the proportion of "lyes and veritys" in the works of the
ent English libellers of America; but we make no doubt that they at least keep
ld Puritan estimate.

History of Illinois, from its First Discovery and Settlement, to the Present
By Henry Brown, Counsellor at Law. New York: J. Winchester.

is a large octavo, of nearly five hundred pages, and embraces a very full and com-
tory of Illinois, from the earliest time, to the present year. It embraces the most
scenes in its history—its early settlement by the French; the narratives of their
sionaries; the expedition of Colonel Clark to Kaskaskia; the massacre at Chi-
ie Black Hawk war; the Mormon prophet; the history of the Illinois banks;
and internal improvements, its resources, &c.; and, in short, a great variety of
ring upon the history, not only of that state, but the whole western country. The
on banks and banking *in Illinois*, with a few trifling alterations, we have trans-
a former part of this Magazine.

3—*Scenes, Incidents, and Adventures in the Pacific Ocean, or the Islands of the Australasian Seas, during the Cruise of the Clipper Margaret Oakley, under Captain Benjamin Morrell; clearing up the Mystery which has heretofore surrounded this famous Expedition, and containing a full account of the Exploration of the Bidera, Papua, Banda, Mindora, Sooloo, and China Seas, the Manners and Customs of the Inhabitants of the Islands, and a Description of Vast Regions never before visited by Civilized Man.* By THOMAS JEFFERSON JACOBS. New York: Harper & Brothers.

The author has furnished an interesting statement of the incidents of the voyage, the scenes through which he was led in its course, and the character, situation, and resources of the numerous islands explored. It is written in an agreeable and familiar style, and contains a large amount of information which, up to the present moment, remains emphatically *terra incognita.*

4.—*The Life of Christ; or, a Critical Examination of his History.* By DR. DAVID FREDERICK STRAUSS. Translated from the German, and reprinted from an English edition. New York: Republished by G. Vale.

This is a reprint of an English edition of this remarkable work. Dr. Strauss does not agree either with the rational interpreters of the Gospel, nor with the orthodox; but considers them in a light different from both. His idea is, that the whole is a mythology; or, in other words, he considers that the idea of Messiah, and all the attendant circumstances, existed in the minds of the Jewish people before Jesus was born; and were, of course, attached to him immediately after he assumed that character. So that he considers the type of the Messiah to have existed previous to the advent of Jesus; and that the peculiarities of his doctrine, and the particulars of his destiny, were combined with that type, and the whole was necessarily modified, till it became definitely fixed in the canonical Gospels.

5.—*The Works of Charlotte Elizabeth. With an Introduction.* By Mrs. H. B. STOWE. Volume I. Containing Personal Recollections; Osric, (a poem;) the Porbite; the Siege of Derry; Letters from Ireland, and Miscellaneous Poems. New York: M. W. Dodd.

Of the literary character of the writings of Charlotte Elizabeth, we have frequently had occasion to speak; as her works have, from time to time, in rapid succession, been republished in this country. Most of them have passed through several editions, and obtained a circulation so extensive, as to warrant us in expressing the opinion that no female writer, in our day, has had a more numerous class of readers. Her "Personal Recollections," embracing an autobiography of her life and opinions, furnishes a key by which to understand and appreciate the woman, as she appears in her writings. The present edition embraces six of her works, and it is the intention of Mr. Dodd shortly to issue a second volume, or as many as will embrace all that have already been published, and all that may hereafter appear. This plan will enable her admirers to possess the cheapest and handsomest edition, in the most compact and desirable form for a family library.

6.—*The Ladies' Work-Table Book; containing Clear and Practical Instructions in Plain and Fancy Needlework, Embroidery, Knitting, Netting, and Crotchet. With numerous engravings, illustrative of the various Stitches in those useful and fashionable employments.* New York: J. Winchester.

The title-page expresses very clearly the object of this handsome little volume; and, as far as we are capable of judging, the design of the writer is accomplished in a manner that cannot fail of meeting the approval of that portion of our fair countrywomen who would acquire accomplishments at once innocent and useful.

7.—*Proceedings of the Naval Court-Martial, in the case of Alexander Slidell Mackenzie, &c. To which is added, An Elaborate Review.* By JAMES FENNIMORE COOPER. New York: Henry G. Langley.

The report of the proceedings of the court, in this melancholy and tragic affair, is full *and complete;* and the review by Mr. Cooper, though searching, is, in our view, written *with ability, coolness,* and impartiality.

.—*History of the War in the Peninsula, and in the South of France, from the year* 1807 *to the year* 1814. By W. F. P. NAPIER, C. B. In 2 volumes. New York: J. S. Redfield.

When reading Napier's History, and contrasting it with Alison's narrative of the wars f the French Revolution, the mind is often puzzled to ascertain how it is that the effect roduced upon the reader is so decidedly dissimilar. Alison, with all his sound morality, xcites, in an American citizen, a species of revulsion. On the contrary, Napier imbues ıe mind with a sensation that he is perusing a writer congenial to himself. The solution ı this:—The leaven of rank, servile toryism, which is commingled with the whole of ılison's details, conflicts with our republican convictions; while the spirit of freedom that lows in all Napier's delineations, meets a counterpart in the powerful emotions of every hilanthropist, who is animated by the true principles of an American citizen. Napier's olume (for the two volumes are bound together, in a large octavo, of 812 pages,) is just dapted to encourage the love of genuine social liberty; to foster international amity, and o render war odious; to excite commiseration for national ignorance and bondage, and o nourish the love of our democratic institutions.

.—*A System of Geography for the Use of Schools, illustrated with more than fifty Cerographic Maps, and numerous Wood-cut Engravings.* By SIDNEY E. MORSE, A. M. New York: Harper & Brothers.

The arrangement of this new geography is admirable. The map, questions on the map, ınd description of each country, are on the same page, (quarto,) or on pages directly opposite; so that the pupil may readily refer from one to the other, without the inconvenience of two books, or even the necessity of turning the leaves. It is, altogether, the nost attractive school geography that we have ever seen, and peculiarly well adapted to he improved method of acquiring a knowledge of the science, chiefly by the use of maps.

0.—*The Horseman; containing Plain Practical Rules for Riding, and Hints to the Reader, on the Selection of Horses. To which is added, A Sabre Exercise, for Mounted and Dismounted Service.* By H. R. HERSHBERGER, at the U. S. Military Academy, West Point. New York: Henry G. Langley.

The author of this little volume, after a connection of nearly nine years with the cavalry service, and a close observance of everything relating to horsemanship, is certainly competent to convey practical information on all equestrian exercises; which, as far as we are capable of judging, he has done by an easy and progressive method. The treatise s illustrated with cuts, representing the various kinds of bits, paces or gaits of the horse, ınd practices for the accomplished horseman.

1.—*Apostolic Baptism. Facts and Evidences on the Subject and Mode of Christian Baptism.* By C. TAYLOR, Editor of Calmet's Dictionary of the Bible. New York: Saxton & Miles.

The author of this volume maintains that baptism, from "the day of Pentecost, was ıdministered by the apostles and evangelists to infants, and not by submersion." We are rather inclined to the Quaker view of the subject, but consider "baptism and the supper as still beautiful to many a soul—that speak blessed words of significance. Let them continue for such as need them. We want real Christianity—the absolute religion—preached with faith, and applied to life—*being good, and doing good.*"

2.—*Miscellaneous Essays on Christian Morals, Experimental and Practical.* By JOHN FOSTER, author of the "Essays on Decision of Character, and Popular Ignorance." New York: D. Appleton & Co.

These essays were originally delivered as lectures, in Bristol, England, to an auditory consisting of various religious denominations, most of whom had long known and appreciated the author's writings. They are free from all sectarian exclusiveness, and are addressed to the *understanding and hearts* of all good Christians; embracing a wide range *of subjects, and varied with an elaborate* style of illustration.

13.—*Domestic Tales and Allegories, illustrating Human Life.* By HANNAH MORE. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

A selection from the writings of Hannah More, forming a volume of Appleton's "Library for the People, and their Children." The six tales comprised in the volume combine useful instruction, in the most familiar form; and inculcate the purest morals and practical piety, in the exemplary portraitures of our constant associates.

14.—*Notes, Critical and Practical, on the Book of Judges. Designed as a General Help to Biblical Reading and Instruction.* By GEORGE BUSH, Professor of Hebrew and Oriental Literature, New York City University. New York: Saxton & Miles.

Dr. Bush is undoubtedly one of the most erudite Biblical students of the day; and his contributions to sacred literature are received by the orthodox divines, in Europe and America, as standards of criticism.

WORKS IN PAMPHLET FORM, RECEIVED SINCE OUR LAST.

1.—*Mirror Library, No.* 29. *The Odes of Anacreon and Alchepron.* By THOMAS MOORE. New York: Morris & Willis. [One of a cheap and elegant series of the choicest gems of literature, worthy of a niche in every parlor library.]

2.—*Saturday Emporium.* New York: Ward & Co. [This new journal has reached its tenth weekly issue, and we are gratified to learn meets the encouragement it so eminently deserves. It is handsomely printed, and conducted with a pure and correct taste and discriminating judgment. Mr. Greene, the editor, is a gentleman of a highly cultivated mind, and a ready and agreeable writer.

3.—*Faith and Knowledge.* By J. H. MERLE D'AUBIGNE, D. D. Author of "The Reformation in the 15th Century." Translated from the French, by M. M. BACKUS. New York: John S. Taylor.

4.—*Geneva and Rome. Rome Papal, as portrayed by Prophecy and History.* By S. R. L. GAUSSEN, Professor of Divinity. With an Introduction by E. BICKERSTETH, A. M. New York: John S. Taylor.

5.—*Electrotype Manipulation. Part* 1. *Being the Theory, and plain instructions in the Art of working metals, by precipitating them from their solutions, through the agency of Galvanic or Voltaic Electricity. Part* 2. *Containing the Theory, and Instructions in the Arts of Electro-Plating, Electro-Gilding, and Electro-Etching: with an account of depositing metalic oxides, and of several applications of Electrotype in the Arts.* By CHARLES V. WALKER, Recording Secretary of the London Electrical Society. Illustrated by wood cuts. Philadelphia: Cary & Hart.

6.—*Library of Select Novels, No.* 39. *The Grandfather.* A Novel by the late Miss ELLEN PICKERING, authoress of "Nan Darrell," "The Fright," "The Grumbler," &c. New York: Harper & Brothers.

7.—*Library of Select Novels, No.* 38. *The H—— Family; Tralinnan, Axel, and Anna; and other Tales.* By FREDERIKA BREMER. Translated by MARY HOWITT. New York: Harper & Brothers.

8.—*The Spoon, No.* 2 *and* 3. New York: Harper & Brothers. [A singular work, illustrating domestic manners, &c.]

9.—*The Spirit of the Nation; and other Select Political Songs. Parts* I *and* 2. By the Writers of the Dublin Newspaper Press. First American, from the last correct Dublin edition, with additions. New York: Casserly & Sons. [A noble collection of songs, elicited by the great moral movement of a brave, cheerful, witty, warm-hearted, and hospitable race, for freedom from the oppressions of the British Government.]

10.—*Rabbah Taken; or the Theological System of Rev. Alexander Campbell, examined and refuted.* By ROBERT W. SANDIS, Pastor of the Presbyterian Church, Bethleheim, New Jersey. New York: Mark H. Newman.

11.—*The Wandering Jew.* By EUGENE SUE. Translated from the French Manuscript, by HENRY W. HERBERT, author of "The Brothers," &c. New York: J. Winchester. [Publishing in parts from the advance sheets received from Paris, and purchased by Mr. W. at an expense of 15,000 francs. Three numbers have appeared. It is a work of deep and powerful interest.]

12.—*Library of Select Novels, No.* 40. *Arrah Neil: or, Times of Old. A Romance.* By G. P. R. JAMES, Esq., author of "Richelieu," &c. New York: Harper & Brothers. [J. Winchester has also published an edition of the same novel.]

13.—*Traditions and Fairy Legends of the South of Ireland.* By T. CROFTON CROKER. *A new edition,* with numerous illustrations and designs, by the Author and others. *Philadelphia:* Lea & Blanchard.

THE

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE,

Established July, 1839,

BY FREEMAN HUNT, EDITOR AND PROPRIETOR.

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HUNT'S

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ART. I.—THE TARIFF OF DUTIES IN THE UNITED STATES.*

THE United States of America hold, at the present time, so important a place amongst civilized nations, that the deliberations of their government nearly always echo back to Europe. We have so much the stronger reason to examine into these, when the measures adopted by Congress are of such a nature as to exercise a great influence on the commerce and industry of other nations. Thus the news of the adoption of the tariff of duties, of September, 1842, produced a great sensation in England and in France. This important act, which is, in fact, one of a series of financial measures of which President Tyler had not approved, and had been vetoed by him twice only, became the law of the Union, by sacrificing all that which was not absolutely a part of it. The demands of the European merchants, their urgent endeavors to interest the diplomacy in getting it modified, for some time kept the hope alive, that the United States would reconsider this great measure; but a new session of Congress has ended, and the tariff in question has not been repealed. It has thus become, what may be called a confirmed principle, and now is the proper time to search out the causes which have determined this resolution. In order to understand it the better, we will place ourselves as much as possible in an American point of view. In doing so, we do not disregard those interests of France which may be affected by it; all our wishes tend towards bringing about such reciprocal and equitable concessions as may insure the activity of our commercial relations, the value of which we do not even believe America has always sufficiently appreciated. In this rapid sketch, we have chiefly desired to follow the history of the facts, opinions and sentiments, which have brought the American people to the present protective system. She did not have France in

* *This paper appeared in "La Revue Des Deux Mondes," for July, 1843. The present translation is from a copy of it, politely forwarded to us by our valued correspondent, the author, M. D. L. Rodet, of Paris.*—[ED. MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.]

view, in framing the articles of the new tariff; the experience of the past made it desirable for America to secure her independence, in creating at home such productive forces as might be useful to her in war, as well as in peace. We will not dissemble that we had formed this wish with her, and that, in this respect, we believe that there are no truths in the science of political economy, so absolute, that they may not be modified by strong political considerations.

The duties received into the treasuries of governments, on the importation, the circulation, the sale, the consumption and the exportation of provisions and merchandise, have generally been established as sources of revenue. It is in this point of view alone, that they are still regarded by the nations which have remained in an imperfect state of civilization, and amongst whom the study of economical laws has made no progress; but enlightened nations have discovered the extensive influence which duties have upon home manufactures, and on the production and the development of public wealth. They have used the tariff as a means of exciting their own citizens, and also as a means of enfeebling their rivals; and before fixing the rate of duties to be imposed, each state has reserved to itself the examination of the circumstances, by which the general home production has been governed, and the differences which may exist between its situation and that of other nations with which it is connected by commerce.

Great difficulties present themselves to the legislator, when the laws of production are not homogeneous with the country which he is called to govern. If the people, scattered over a vast territory, find that in manners, in their social situation, in climate, from different soils, and by being more or less inclined to the arts of industry, they are divided into great factions, having opposite interests, the problem of conciliation will never be definitely solved, but continually reproduced. The factions which believe themselves wronged, will remain in a state of sullen discontent with this or that law of the often imperceptible numerical majority, which clogs the deliberations of all representative governments. Such is, in fact, the particular situation of the United States.

The political contract which made a whole of the different states of the Union, has secured to each state so great an independence, that no state can be prejudiced by any law designed to unite opposing commercial interests. The federal league does not possess a coercive force, strong enough to prevent all legislative movements from being enfeebled by the fear of leading debate to the limits of threats of separation. If we look at the diverse origin of this new people, at the causes which have favored their rapid increase, at the influences which peculiar social positions exercise in different manners, we can, without difficulty, account for the opposite interests which these divisions keep up.

Geographically considered, the great region of the United States presents an immense seacoast on the Atlantic ocean, at the east, and on the Gulf of Mexico, at the south. On the north, the St. Lawrence and the lakes, separate it from the English possessions. At the southwest, it is bounded by Mexico and Texas. A part of this vast extent of territory, is, as yet, but nominally possessed by the American Union. As the population gradually develops, it will serve as a theatre for the enterprise of coming generations—we mean, the extreme west, or that part beyond the Rocky Mountains. While civilization has been on the march, it has fur-

nished an asylum for the remains of the savage tribes, which ever since the foundation of the colonies, the European has driven before him.

The real part of the Union is at present composed of twenty-six states, which are members of the confederation, and are represented in Congress; of three territories, which their still too feeble population has not been able to raise to the same rank; and of the federal district of Columbia, the capital of which is Washington, the seat of the central government.

If we consider private interests, the influence of which on the political votes is very great, we may divide the United States into four grand divisions, the views and tendency of which we will examine. These are:

1st. The northeast region, comprising ten states, the population of which, according to the census of 1840, is 6,853,797 free inhabitants and 3,370 slaves.

2d. The southwest region, comprising five states and the district of Columbia, having 2,394,975 free inhabitants and 1,396,975 slaves.

3d. The northwest region, comprising four states and two territories, and inhabited by 2,967,476 free persons and 364 slaves.

4th. The southwest region, comprising seven states and one territory, and inhabited by 2,377,205 free persons and 1,086,404 slaves.

If we add to this estimate 6,100 seamen, which are not comprehended therein, we find the whole population to be 14,581,653 free, and 2,487,113 slaves; in all, 17,062,566 inhabitants.

In 1810, (thirty years before,) the census of the population was found to be 6,048,450 free persons and 1,191,364 slaves; in all, 7,239,814 souls.

If we express in round numbers, the two regions of north and south, we find that the actual free population is

For the north, 9,800,000, } For the south, 4,800,000, }	14,600,000
The entire slave population of the south,.....	2,500,000
Total,.....	17,100,000

In this increase of 150 per cent for thirty years, which increase has been proportionally more rapid during the last ten years, the different states have advanced unequally. The increase has been feeble in the southeastern states, which have hardly received any part of the European emigrations, and more considerable in the northeastern states, which are the home of manufactures and commerce; it has also been very large in the new northwestern and southwestern states, which have been overrun with foreign populations, and have also attracted enterprising men from the states on the seacoast.

In order to make our observations more intelligible, we will devote a few lines to enumerating the different states which we regard as constituting parts of the great divisions which we have marked out.

The northeastern region is formed of six states, which have been called New England; Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island and Connecticut, all which, together, have 2,233,000 inhabitants. These states *owe their origin* to the puritan colonies, whom religious *prosecution had driven away from* the mother country. The spirit of enterprise, *love of work*, agriculture and navigation, have made this stron

race conquer the roughness and sterility of an ungenial soil. We add to these, on account of the similarity of interests, the four more southern states, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania and Delaware, which represent 4,602,000 inhabitants. This part of the Union had its principal origin in the foreign colonies recovered by England before they were much settled, and in the land ceded to William Penn and the Quakers. Here is the principal centre of foreign commerce and navigation, of accumulated wealth and of a growing civilization; and is the route which the traveller is almost obliged to take in going to the west. Slavery, which still exists in the other maritime states, has disappeared from this part of the country.

The southeastern region includes Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia and the district of Columbia. These states are the ancient colonies, which took a part with the northeastern states in the revolutionary war. Their products being those of agriculture, they have retained slavery; and the advantage of fine seaports, assures to them a direct commerce with foreign nations.

The new states are formed of the countries, to which the treaty of 1783 gave the rights of the Union, and of subsequent acquisitions. With the exception of Florida, and of the states which are washed by the waters of the Gulf of Mexico, they are shut in, in the grand valley of the Mississippi and its tributary streams, the mouth and only outlet of which is by New Orleans. Great Britain has given up to the federal Union, its pretensions to the territory which is situated between the Alleganies and the Mississippi, and which has been granted to it, by France, in the treaty of 1763. At this last period, Spain had acquired the possession, under the name of Louisiana, of the vast extent of land, which, without definite limits, stretches from the western banks of the Mississippi all the way to the Pacific ocean. In 1800, it ceded to France this splendid part of the globe, and two years later, a new treaty put the United States in possession of it, and its actual limits were determined upon in 1821, at the time of the cession of Florida. We have included these states in one division on account of their social condition.

The northwestern region, from which slavery is excluded, is composed of the four following states: Ohio, Indiana, Illinois and Michigan, and of the two territories of Iowa and Wisconsin. Hitherward, the European farmers who emigrate, are continually wending their way, having decided to cultivate the land, purchased for a low price, themselves, and which they cover with rich harvests and herds of cattle.

The southwestern region, to which we attach the Gulf of Mexico, comprehends seven states: Kentucky, Tennessee, Arkansas, Missouri, Louisiana, Mississippi, Alabama and the territory of Florida. The cultivation of tobacco, cotton and sugar, is advanced by the slave population, transported from the older states, on a soil, the fertility of which surpasses all the hopes that the enterprising people who had settled it, had dared to conceive.

This natural division of the Union, explains the opposing interests of its different parts, and the difficulties experienced in attempting to *conciliate them.* Political management makes these difficulties still more *complicated*: the whig, or moderate party, is friendly to the manufacturing interest, and the radical party defeats all its efforts for the sake of *protecting* agriculture and its products. In order to appreciate their rea-

sonings, we cannot do better than to examine the course which the United States took, up to the time they were acknowledged as a distinct nation.

No history is more worthy of interest than that of men, for whom is reserved the task of founding new colonies, which afterward become large states. Generally condemned to a perpetual exile from their mother country, they have a long contest to bear up against, before gathering any fruits from their laborious industry. They have but little aid to expect from the government of their old country, and when it troubles itself about them, it is less for the sake of their prosperity, than selfish advantage. The colonists of New England were obliged, at first, to ask from a rebel soil, the means of providing for the most immediate wants of life; the second point, was to procure means of exchange so as to obtain the comforts of life, and, at length, to secure the enjoyment of wealth.

The products of the chase and of fishery, the furs received from the hands of savages, navigation, the exploring of primitive forests and the rude arts, enabled them to pay for the articles which they were obliged to get from the metropolis. As long as Great Britain maintained the sway of these precious colonies, she was always careful to traverse every sign of development of such works of industry as might enter into competition with the metropolis; but it was difficult for her to crush the spirit of enterprise which strove to break these fetters. The attempts were continually renewed, to replace, by domestic products, the articles in daily use, the materials for which were found in the country. At the end of the 17th century, the colonists endeavored to make use of the wool of their flocks, and also of the hemp and flax which they were busy in cultivating. They manufactured, at first, for their own consumption, cloths of the coarsest kind. At this, England was soon in motion; and an act of parliament, of 1699, prohibited the exportation, in any port of the American plantations, for whatsoever destination it might be, of wool, gathered, spun or manufactured, in these colonies. Twenty years later, in 1719, the house of commons proclaimed, that the object of the establishment of manufactures in the colonies, was to diminish their dependence upon Great Britain; and thus, politics aided in confirming the prohibitions demanded by particular interests.

A report called for, by the house of commons, and submitted to it in 1732, shows that, notwithstanding the high price of manual labor in the young colonies, the condition of the American manufactures was perceptibly ameliorated. The local legislation of Massachusetts had encouraged the manufacture of paper. Pennsylvania, New York, Connecticut and Rhode Island, found resources in cultivating grain, and in raising cattle and sheep. The wool, which was abundant, and consequently without value, had started the idea of manufacturing the ordinary cloths in domestic use. Hemp and flax, of which there was also plenty, was transformed into coarse cloths, sacks, belts and cords, of more durability than the same articles imported. Leather and iron, though inferior to that of the metropolis, and several articles of minor importance, were also among these productions demanded by local wants. The articles exported from the different states, consisted of grain, wood, planks, tar, pitch, hogs, cattle, horses, furs *and products of fishery.* These articles, likewise, were the *foundation for the traffic with* the tropical colonies, from whence Amer-

ica obtained sugar, rum, cocoa, cotton and also money, which came opportunely to pay the balance due the merchants of the metropolis.

This spirit of industry, continuing to make England feel uneasy, parliament, after the report of 1732, recommended to the chamber of commerce to consider what means would throw the colonies back to the production of articles that might be useful to the metropolis, and chiefly of naval munitions. A series of partial acts was the consequence of this recommendation. The object of all these was to fetter or discourage some particular branches of manufacture, such as that of iron, or of hats; and forty years rolled on, during this sullen contest between the powers of the metropolis and the American colonies, who regarded the measures of which they were the victims, as so many blows aimed at their natural rights. These grievances, together with the exactions of the crown, contributed to develop the germs of a disaffection which ended in the declaration of independence.

New England and its neighboring states, which we have designated as the northeastern section, was the principal seat of the rising industry which the metropolis sought to divert; the southeastern states, with the exception of Virginia, were devoted to little else besides agriculture. Their mild climate allowed the cultivation of certain products, which, far from clashing with the products of Great Britain, furnished them, on the contrary, with numerous means of barter. Tobacco, rice, indigo, besides numerous articles produced simultaneously with the north, served as the basis for an important commerce. Such was the commercial situation of America when the war of independence broke forth.

The ocean, almost entirely closed to the Americans during the seven or eight years this contest lasted, did not allow the colonies to receive their customary supply from the markets of Europe. It was now necessary to have recourse to the imperfect industry of each separate locality, to obtain the articles of the most immediate necessity to domestic life; it became most especially necessary to make great efforts for the manufacture of arms, and all the materials necessary for the defence of the country. At the peace of 1783, the confederate states ought, doubtlessly, to have persevered in this course, but the tie which united them was still too feeble. Each colony, jealous of its independence, found it difficult to yield to a general legislation. The maxim of the Salem merchants, that the freer commerce is, the more certain is its prosperity, prevailed. The tariff was calculated only as a means of revenue, and the low rate of duties encouraged excessive importations, out of proportion, in value, to the products offered in exchange. The cash obtained from the two belligerent powers, France and England, to pay the troops and the expenses of the war, and which had enriched the country, soon disappeared. The consequence was a universal distress, the ruin of manufactures, of agriculture, and, at length, of commerce, which fell a victim to its own errors. Disastrous measures, which absolute necessity alone could justify, were the consequence. The year 1786, was made remarkable by an insurrection which placed society itself in peril; and after having been on the borders of an abyss, the confederation was saved only by the adoption of a new constitution.

This constitution, which still serves as a band to unite all the states, *took effect in 1789*; and the second act, passed by the first Congress, was *the tariff of duties*. Agriculture and commerce, were then popular; their

voice predominated, and the cause of the rising manufactures was sacrificed. In the infancy of their establishments, the manufacturers had to contend with feeble capitals, a small number of machines, a want of experience and a high price of manual labor, against their foreign rivals, who were in the possession of immense capitals, an unlimited credit, many years of experience, a complete protection on the home markets and paid but very low wages, besides all which they had bounties for exportations. Such was the relative situation of the local industry, when the insufficient protection accorded them, reduced them to the lowest straits. We can judge how this happened, on considering that out of $24,341,504 worth of foreign merchandise, which paid ad valorem duties in 1789–90,

$21,742,291	were taxed at	5	per cent.
1,587,365	"	7½	"
1,004,367	"	10	"
5	"	12½	"
7,576	"	15	"

These duties, much inferior to those which the state of Pennsylvania had established in 1785, before Congress was invested with the power, fell lightest on manufactured products. The first imports were taxed in inverse ratio; for the articles manufactured of cotton and of hemp, paid 5 per cent, whilst the raw material of cotton and hemp bore a fixed equal duty of 12 per cent; and the objects of general consumption, coffee, molasses, sugar and tea, at from 16 to 40 per cent; coal, 10 per cent; cheese, 57; and salt, 75. At the same time, the American navigation was favored by an enormous tariff of tonnage and coast duties.

The agriculturist and the foreign trader, thought they had accomplished everything in being protected against foreign competition, and in being able to obtain manufactured articles at a low rate. Thus the tariff continued about twenty years, during which, the American navigation, receiving the fruits of its neutrality in the midst of the contest in which the powers of Europe were engaged, contributed to develop the prosperity of the Union; but, in spite of all its power, America could not avoid taking a part in the conflict. Congress, in 1807, was obliged to proclaim a general embargo, and the states of the confederation found themselves deprived of all the articles which Great Britain furnished them with, and obliged again to reflect on the importance native manufactures might be to them. The House of Representatives ordered, in 1809, the reprint o a report made to Congress, in 1791, by Alexander Hamilton, on the state of the home manufactures at that period, and charged Albert Gallatin with new researches on their present situation. The writings of others on the subject, by different public officers, revised by Tench Coxe, estimated the total product of American manufactures, in 1810, at $127,694,602, or more than 760,000,000 of francs.

The war of 1812, happening to take place at this time, again shut out foreign products, and again directed the public mind to the home industry. A considerable capital was invested in it, and the manufactures developed immensely, although transiently, for the return of peace, in 1815, was the signal of their ruin. The ports being reopened, Great Britain poured into the country *such a quantity of* manufactured articles, that the Amer*ican market was overstocked.* A number of English houses were ruined, *but the American manufacturer* was crushed by the same blow. The

English policy, at this time, was clearly explained, in the words addressed by Brougham to the assembled parliament: "It is well worth while to suffer some losses on the first exportation, since by that means we choke, in their birth, the manufactures of the United States, to which, against the natural course of things, the war had given rise."

The national mind, however, believed in the importance of the protection which American industry demanded; and, in 1816, legislation began to be directed towards this object. The tariff of 1816, was a step towards effecting this, but only a timid and embarrassed step, and did not obtain the entire suffrages of either of the divided interests.

The United States had grown, and their power was developed with their new acquisitions and the attempts to make a rich unexplored heritage valuable. At the period to which we have now arrived, the deliberations of Congress began to feel the weight of the influence of the southwestern and northwestern sections. The agriculturist of these countries, the colonization of which marched rapidly onward, was sustained by the inhabitants of the old southeastern states. They altogether wished, that the protection accorded to the manufacturing industry of the northeast, should be only temporary and decreasing, and all the tariffs have contained provisions to this effect; thus woollen stuffs were, in June, 1816, charged with a duty of 25 per cent, which was to be reduced to 20 per cent, in June, 1819.

We cannot, here, enter into considerations of each article of the tariff of 1816, which experienced some modifications in 1818. In the year 1824, the duties on articles manufactured of cotton and wool were reduced. Great Britain responded to this measure, by lowering the import duties on raw wool, five-sixths below their former standard, so that the manufacturers might continue their exportations. In consequence of this, the American manufacturers addressed themselves to Congress, and the result of their demands was the celebrated tariff of 1828, which raised the duties on woollen goods considerably.

A period of prosperity in the American finances, and the almost entire extinction of the federal debt, caused the question of revenue to be again examined. Two parties arose, the one advocating free trade and proposing a reduction of all the duties on imported merchandise to a uniform and very low rate, the other favoring the reduction of the duties on all the articles that could not be produced in the country, or compete with American labor, and demanding that the tariff on the rest should remain. After a violent discussion, the last system prevailed in Congress, and in July, 1832, the modified tariff was adopted, to take effect the following year. The resistance of the state of South Carolina, almost led to the separation of the Union, and was the cause of the act of compromise due to the wisdom of the negotiations of Henry Clay. The modified tariff was voted in the winter of 1833, took effect the 30th June of the same year, and was to continue till June 30th, 1842. The principal provisions of this tariff, were, that all duties imposed which exceeded 20 per cent ad valorem, should be diminished from year to year so as to make them all at that rate at the expiration of the law. This act also enumerates the articles, which after this period shall be received duty free, and it declares (attempting to limit the power of future legislation) that, after the 30th of June, 1842, no import duties shall exceed 20 per cent.; and also, that

these duties shall be established only for the object of procuring the revenue needed for an economical administration of the government.

At this period of 1833, the decline of the southeastern states was already distinctly marked: for the exportations had been

	1821.	1832.
From Virginia,.....	$1,078,000	$550,000
" South Carolina,.....	3,000,000	1,213,000
" New York,.....	23,000,000	57,000,000

This comparison shows us the rapidity with which the seat of navigation and commerce was changed to New York, which, more fortunately situated, had drawn the principal part of the business away from Boston and Salem, as well as from Richmond and Charleston. The states of New England, during the tariff of 1833, attached themselves to the manufacturing industry, the products of which, in the state of Massachusetts alone, exceeded the value of $90,000,000 and kept 120,000 persons at work. The small town of Lowell, which dates as far back only as 1824, had, in 1840, a population of 21,000 inhabitants, 9,000 of which are working people, and two-thirds of these, females; and furnishes annually 60,000,000 yards of cloths, and consumes 20,000,000 pounds of cotton.

Although the commercial changes have been brought about by various causes, we will here endeavor to explain the course of the commerce of the United States, during the three last years, and under the tariff of 1833.

We will divide it amongst the three maritime regions, not being able to include the northwestern therein, which is obliged to borrow the territories of the northeast or of the southwest to communicate with foreign nations. The value in money, of exportations, was—

	1839.	1840.	1841.
For the Northeastern states,....	$49,890,133	$53,393,360	$52,095,146
" Southeastern "	27,051,269	28,587,923	23,462,636
" Southwestern " and those on the gulf,...	44,087,014	50,104,663	46,294,021
Total,.....	$121,028,416	$132,085,746	$121,851,803

The value of importations, was—

	1839.	1840.	1841.
For the Northeastern states,....	$138,818,450	$87,146,807	$108,040,700
" Southeastern "	11,781,575	8,369,513	8,782,611
" Southwestern " and those on the gulf,...	13,492,107	11,624,923	11,122,866
Total,.....	$162,092,132	$107,141,243	$127,946,117

The value of the principal articles of merchandise, exported, was—

American Products:	1839.	1840.	1841.
Cotton,.....	$61,238,982	$63,870,307	$54,330,341
Tobacco,.....	9,832,943	9,883,957	12,576,703
Rice,.....	2,460,198	1,942,076	2,010,107
Flour,.....	6,925,170	10,143,615	7,759,646
Pork,.....	1,771,230	1,894,894	2,621,537
Articles manufac'd of cotton,..	2,975,033	3,549,607	3,112,546
Divers articles,.....	18,330,535	22,611,178	23,971,842
	$103,534,091	$113,895,634	$106,382,722
For. merchandise re-exported,.	17,494,325	18,190,312	15,469,081
Total,.....	$121,028,416	$132,085,946	$121,851,80[illegible]

The value of the principal articles, imported, was—

	1839.	1840.	1841.
Woollen goods,	$17,594,536	$8,628,752	$11,012,468
Cotton "	14,692,397	6,504,484	12,841,535
Silk "	21,752,369	9,835,757	17,188,235
Glassware,	962,322	563,429	571,459
Iron, in bars, and wrought,	12,038,205	6,712,691	8,885,883
	$67,039,829	$32,245,113	$50,499,580
Divers articles,	72,960,279	55,341,948	54,836,787
Tea,	2,428,419	5,427,010	3,362,186
Coffee,	9,744,103	8,546,222	10,444,882
Sugar,	9,919,502	5,580,950	8,802,742
Total,	$162,092,132	$107,141,243	$127,946,177

We see, by this table, that, in the course of three years, the value of exportations has been lower than the value of importations (leaving out of view the freight) about $22,000,000, or more than 115,000,000 of francs. The five preceding years, from 1834 to 1838, show a difference in the same scale, of $140,000,000, or 735,000,000 of francs. This state of affairs, making the United States debtors in more and more important sums to the European states, in 1837, brought on a commercial crisis of the most violent kind, the consequences of which are not yet effaced. The almost entire exportation of specie reduced nearly all the banks to a suspension of payment, which, in the greater part of them, ended in failure. The equilibrium of society was entirely disturbed, and, in spite of the resistance of the spirit of speculation, the evil became so serious that Congress was obliged to consider what remedies might be available.

On examining the provisions of the tariff of 1842, we are convinced that the idea which dictated it, was not that of increasing the federal revenue. The raising of duties on nearly all manufactured merchandise, shows that no regard has been had for the receipts, which would have been the result of moderate imposts. Coffee and tea, for instance, are left duty free; and they might have made two great sources of revenue, because they have always been considered articles of food in general use, the price of which might have some influence on the rate of manual labor. Congress, for the sake of consistency, saw fit to moderate the duties on wines, so as not to restrict the use of them to the wealthy alone.

The tariff was established for the object of developing home manufactures, and with this purpose in view, it particularly favors the northeastern region, and the state of Virginia, which belongs to the southeastern region, and which, on account of the activity and genius of its inhabitants, has taken a foremost position in all the branches of production. The southwestern states enjoy their share of protection, by the duty on raw sugar, which is at the rate of two and a half cents per pound, or from 60 to 75 per cent on the first cost in foreign colonies; the central states and those of the northwest, by the exclusion of foreign spirits and the increased tax on agricultural products. They also enjoy indirect advantages by the consumption of the neighboring states.

The United States, although they hardly seem to be aware of it themselves, have this time entered more firmly into the commercial system adopted by all the nations of Europe, namely, that of protection to home labor and the agriculture of the interior; which same position they took at their origin with regard to their maritime system. Happily for them,

they have stopped at high tariffs without going as far as absolute prohibition—the worst of all protections, because it saps the commercial life of the country instead of directing or exciting industry in new channels. If they persevere, there is no doubt they will be obliged to demand contributions from the different states, by imposts on property, excise or local taxes, for providing for the expenses of the federal government and the common defence. The time cannot be far distant, when the duties must produce so little, that the necessity of relying upon the local taxes will appear. The tie which unites the different parts of the Union, will, by this circumstance, become closer and more powerful. This result will not be obtained without much resistance. The tariff is not popular in the southeast, southwest and northwest, except as to that part of it which relates to the small number of articles which these extensive countries can furnish. No one can imagine that the manufacturer of the northeast has any right to expect a higher price for his articles, than for foreign goods; these prices will, in fact, be reduced by the concurrence of the interior, but which, before such concurrence, are kept up for the sake of preserving harmony between the different parts of the national commonwealth.

England, in order to be free in its maritime contests, is endeavoring to naturalize the cultivation of cotton in India. Her first attempts have not succeeded; but if she succeeds in overcoming the obstacles which have made them fail, she will develop this important culture in the countries of which she is the sovereign, as she already has done with regard to indigo, the cultivation of which has been removed from Mexico, Guatemala, St. Domingo, Louisiana, Carolina and the isle of Maurice, to Bengal and the neighboring provinces. If the cultivation of cotton be transplanted, the United States will lose a great part of their means of exchange; and hence it is good policy to favor the increase of home consumption, which is daily tending to increase.

Other American products, such as tobacco and rice, will always be exported from the United States. These are products to which all nations have free access; but corn, flour, domestic animals, wood and planks, are prohibited, or taxed again, in Great Britain and over nearly the whole of Europe. The English possessions, in the American and African seas, would seem by nature to be open for American products; but, as is shown by a report to Congress, of April 14th, 1842, the fetters on American navigation are so strong, that they are equivalent to absolute prohibition, and the principle of reciprocal concession is entirely done away with. The numerous griefs, on both sides, make of themselves a long and interesting history.

The official table of importations and of exportations, ought sometimes to be rectified, by the calculation of particular circumstances which accompany commercial movements; but the errors in this respect, in the United States, are but small, inasmuch as commercial prices serve as a basis for the valuations, and the table comprises even the precious metals which serve as a common standard to the value of everything else. We may deduct, from the excess of importations over exportations, that America has sustained the disproportion of a circulating medium with the wants of exchange, only by a vicious system of internal banks. This immoderate emission of paper, can, however, not occur again; and the value of imported *merchandise must* become pretty near the same as that of the *products given in exchange.* Two-thirds of the expenses of transports

tion are gained by the American flag. The remittances belonging to the operations of the public funds, should also be considered in the calculation of this balance, which demands numerous investigations to arrive at a sufficient degree of exactness; the state of exchanges, and the transportation of cash across the Atlantic, suffice, however, to indicate the reciprocal situation of the commercial powers in this respect.

Since 1841, Russia, Portugal, France, Belgium, the United States and the German Union, have increased the duties on foreign products. If we study with care, the changes adopted by Great Britain, we shall find that, penetrated with the idea of the misery which afflicts her working classes, and seeing the circle about her contract, she is trying, by lightening the duties on the articles of consumption, to maintain some portion of her ancient influence, in diminishing the price of manual labor, and, perhaps, to engage other nations to make liberal concessions. It is on her, that the tariff of the United States weighs the heaviest. She has so long been sworn to the interdiction of the industry of Americans, that now, she is astonished at the immense vacuum which the cessation of the demand produces in her market. France does not feel the mischief so much, for her exports to America consist principally of merchandise, against which, American competition has not been excited in the same degree.

Time will teach us the final consequences of the tariff of 1842. Some of them can be foreseen even now, and every day brings with it new revelations.

We do, however, not suppose that the last word has been said to the United States, on this great question. The coming presidential election, will again lay it before the two political parties who are disputing the power. One of them favors a system of protection only with regard to the agricultural interest, and if it succeeds, the actual taxes may suffer great reductions. While looking for the result, the arguments on both sides are being urged; and we will now examine with impartiality, the reasons alleged, pro. and con.

The partisans of a moderate tariff on foreign products, lean back on the example of England, where a system of high protection for the national productions, has produced on the one hand, an excess of wealth for the proprietors and manufacturers, and on the other, the utmost degree of poverty and misery for the working classes. The superabundance of work, offered in every variety of form, has brought on the depreciation of wages, whilst the high taxes acting on all the articles of importation, have kept up the prices of food, and of all the articles necessary to existence.

It is said, that England would have been able to preserve the empire of the markets of the whole world, if she had admitted from abroad, at light duties, articles of food, in exchange for her manufactured goods, which then would be accepted with less repugnance. But she has laid heavy imposts on the manufacturer and his assistants, for the advantage of the agriculturist; she has taxed the agriculturist, for the advantage of the manufacturer; and both, for the protection of navigation. The colonies are taxed for the good of the mother country, which, in its turn, has to bear taxes intended for colonial protection. The result of this, is a complete circle of taxes, the surplus of which, after the expenses of collecting them have been paid, serves to maintain the power and the glory of the country, to which the happiness and well-being of the mass of the

people are sacrificed, to such an extent, that one-sixth of the population are in a starving condition.

Now let us pass to more immediate consideration. The opponents of the protective system, say that it favors only eight or ten of the states of the Union, (those which we have comprised in the northeastern division.) They show that, in the production of wool, the manufacture of woollens, iron, leather and cotton, this region produced for the interior consumption, in 1840, $102,000,000, (535,500,000 francs,) while the other parts of the Union furnished only $23,000,000 in the same articles, (130,750,000 francs,) and as a consequence of it, the protection was established too openly in their favor; which must necessarily operate abroad so as to keep up the exportation of the agricultural products of the states, whose manufactures are less protected. Nor is this their only complaint: for the high duties of 35 per cent, taxes the consumers of the agricultural states with an enormous amount, to the advantage of the northeastern states.

Furthermore, this system has brought with it consequences, which were not foreseen. The states producing cotton, are contriving to establish rival manufactures. The agriculturist of the west, is doing the same with regard to wool; and all are trying to rear up the domestic animals and cultivate the grain, which formerly they got from their neighbors. This internal struggle, again produces embarrassment in the foreign competition.

On the other hand, the partisans of the protective system, say that it is impolitic to let commerce regulate itself; that the rest of society, not being able to take part with the merchants in the operations to which the country should limit itself in order to continue in a prosperous situation, it follows, as a consequence, that the channels of circulation are continually overstocked and lead to ruin and disasters. Perhaps, if foreign countries, in exchange for the manufactured articles furnished, would receive liberally the grain and the products of America, under moderate taxes on both sides, the United States would find it difficult to solve the question now agitated. If such were the case, a simple change of legislation in Europe, on grain, for instance, would lower the prices of the principal provisions in America; then cash would be exported, and all confidence in the circulating medium would disappear. The impossibility of paying debts without either cash or credit, would again plunge all the business classes into bankruptcy. Wages and products would fall to so low a rate, that manufactories could be carried on as cheaply as in England. Such is the perspective which free trade, considered in its different phases, presents; but, can any one imagine that this would solve the difficulty?

Would it be wise for a people to engage in their own ruin, because once ruined, the price of labor and of provisions would fall so much that it would be advantageous to begin operations anew? And would these enterprises stand any chance of durability? At the first glow of prosperity, would not English exports again be poured into the market, bringing with them the repetition of all the former disasters?

The true and sound policy of the American government, they add, is to contend against the agressive policy of its rivals; to set restrictions against restrictions, duties against duties; to protect and favor its manufactures, *as Great Britain protects* its agriculture, and thus to guard the *people from the bottomless abyss* of foreign debt and bankruptcy; to ex-

tend the sphere of their industry, and to place their national independence on a profound basis.

The consequence of the navigation act, which would not have made the power of England so great, if, since the middle of the 17th century, France, Holland and Spain, had not responded to it by similar provisions, has not escaped the defenders of the protective system. As we are forced to keep within bounds, we will not extend further the exposition of the reasons alleged by the partisans of free trade and those of protection, we will take a last eye glance on what is now actually going on in America.

In the northeastern states, the manufacturing interest is progressing, and will maintain itself until the wages for manual labor will form an eqilibrium with the tariff. The tariff, as it now is, warrants a liberal remuneration for manual labor; it insures to the working man an honorable rank in society, such as no one of his kith, in Europe, can ever hope to occupy. Here, the materials produced by the other states of the Union, and also the provisions necessary for subsistence, find more and more important consumers. The prices of manufactured articles are reduced by competition and improvement, and the increasing exports indicate the results which the accumulation of capitals and intelligence, directed into the channels of industry, are daily bringing about.

The southeastern and southwestern sections, continue to cry out against the high prices which are the consequence of the protective system. They will never rest satisfied until political interests shall have consolidated the system adopted by Congress. The special products of these two southern regions, insure to them their prosperity; and they will be glad enough for having contributed to found cotton manufactures in the north, and finding consumers in the interior, if Great Britain succeeds in naturalizing the production of the plant in India. While this remains problematical, the ports are open for the products of an immense culture; and if the prices are not now so high, it is owing to the downfall of speculations which were sustained by an unwarrantably extravagant credit, and to the reaction which has restored security in business.

The fertile countries of the northwest, have nothing to expect from Europe. The grain and the domestic animals which they raise so easily, are excluded from nearly all the markets. Uncleared land costs scarcely a dollar and a half an acre, and the laborious emigrant has, with the smallest capital, the means of settling with his family in easier circumstances than he ever would have dreamed of in his mother country. This land of promise, responding to the least efforts, frightens the old countries of Europe by the abundance which it threatens them with; and our legislators are forced every year to make laws prohibiting any product coming from there, whatsoever it be, at the moment it makes its appearance. The European laws, with respect to grain, animals, wool and everything that serves for food or clothing, have, up to a certain point, provoked the provisions of the American tariff.

In fine, on considering the influence of the tariff on the American Union as a whole, we find that it insures to it the return of a change that is becoming more and more favorable to its relations with Europe; the re-establishment, in the interior, of the necessary means of exchange, *so as to make* banking operations safer; a greater security in case of *war; and, finally*, in spite of all opposition, the prospect of a new combi*nation of the* public revenue offering more guarantee than that which has

existed up to this day. Perhaps the partial modifications in the long nomenclature of taxed articles, will soon be acknowledged necessary; but in taking exceptions to the system, they approve of it. They will be the price of analogous concessions on the part of the European states, and the result of treaties maturely discussed. The negotiators for both parties, will understand well how important a conciliation is, to the prosperity of America, as well as to that of Europe.

Art. II.—MAINE AND ITS RESOURCES.

The most northern state of New England, Maine, possesses, in the nature of the soil and in its geograpical position, resources that are exceeded by those of few states in the Union. Although it may be regarded as a new state, inasmuch as a considerable portion of its territory, and this comprising some of its most fertile tracts is yet in its primeval wilderness, yet it contains the largest territorial surface, and is the second in population of any within the New England section of the country. The climate, as it is well known, is in a comparatively high latitude, yet it is productive, yielding to industrious husbandry adequate crops. It abounds in minerals of considerable value. It is penetrated by broad and deep navigable rivers, and is washed by a line of seacoast more extensive than that of any other of the states. Its forests produce abundantly, the most valuable sorts of timber for house and ship-building. The coast is indented, at convenient distances, with safe harbors for its shipping, which is employed in the coastwise trade, the fishery and foreign commerce; but more than all, it possesses, in its sagacious, intelligent, prudent, moral and industrious population, a source of prosperity, without which, the most distinguished advantages of soil, climate or geographical position, would be of little avail. It is the design of the present paper to exhibit these resources, and to show, in a condensed form, how far the energy of its people has rendered them available.

The soil is various in its character, being rocky, or of a sandy or clayey composition, for some miles from the seacoast; but, in advancing into the interior, it is found more fertile, and is certainly superior to the general quality of the soil in other parts of New England. Wheat, potatoes, rye, Indian corn and oats, are among its principal agricultural products; its forests produce vast quantities of pine and hemlock-timber, which constitute the staple of a considerable portion of its export trade; and among its mineral products, are granite, slate, lime, iron and all the materials for the manufacture of glass.

Nor is the state wanting in the picturesque, in natural scenery. Groups of mountains spring from the plains, commanding wide and exhilarating views of the surrounding country, or they rise in solitary grandeur from the hills, imbedded with granite, and presenting sometimes, as in the instance of the Katahdin Mountain, a precipice of 2,000 feet descent. Watered by so many rivers as the state possesses, the valleys are numerous and diversified in soil and scenery, being narrow near the seacoast and bordered by *precipitous hills* and craggy bluffs, and expanding, as the *rivers advance toward the head* of tide-water, into broken tracts or an *undulating country.* The two great valleys are the Penobscot and the

Kennebec, which, together with those of the Androscroggin, Aroostook, St. John and their several branches, contain extensive bodies of fertile alluvial soil. Another peculiar feature of the state, is the numerous lakes which dot the landscape; their shores being abrupt and frowning cliffs, are scenes of placid and quiet beauty. In some of them, islands are placed, and their shores are cultivated fields. Some of them are scarcely larger than parlor mirrors, while others are of sufficient size to be navigable. This is especially true of Moosehead lake, which is 40 miles long, and varying from 1 to 12 miles in width, lying in Piscataquis county, and now navigated by a steamboat. There is scarcely a town in the state, that does not possess some of these reservoirs, and they are various in their form. Sometimes they lie in chains, like strings of crystal beads; and sometimes they are grouped around one common centre, like the stones of an ornament of aqua-marine.

The rivers are numerous, and most of them afford advantages either for commerce or manufactures, the two largest being the Penobscot and the Kennebec. The former is the most extensive in the state, and its length is 220 miles, being navigable to Bangor. It furnishes a channel of great value to this section of the state, and is navigated by numerous vessels, as well as by steamboats, from Boston. The Kennebec is the other principal river of the state, it being 150 miles long, and navigable for vessels of 100 tons as high as Augusta, which is 40 miles from its mouth, and for ships, a distance of 34 miles to Gardiner. The scenery along these rivers is very beautiful, and they are bordered by numerous thriving settlements. There are many other rivers of less size, which either furnish navigable advantages, sites for manufactures or channels for lumber rafts. The St. John is another river of some prominence, inasmuch as it constitutes the northern boundary of Maine, after it is joined by the St. Francis, according to the treaty of 1842. Its whole length is 350 miles, and is navigable for boats of 50 tons 80 miles from its mouth, to which place the tide flows; and also for boats, 200 miles above Grand falls to Baker's lake, within 15 miles of its source.

The sources of the principal rivers are about 2,000 feet above the sea, at their mouths; and the necessary consequence is, that the scenery is adorned with numerous waterfalls. Many of those, not only afford remarkable hydraulic advantages, but are distinguished for their picturesque beauty. They exist, in greater or less numbers, in most of the counties, and nearly all furnish exellent water-power, which is, however, but little improved for purposes of manufacture. Such machinery as is required by an agricultural population, may, however, be found upon them; and, in the newer portions of the state, saw-mills, for the manufacture of lumber, are there at work.

We have before remarked that the coast of Maine is indented with bays and harbors, which afford advantages for the various branches of commerce. Those are, however, so numerous, that we have not space to describe them; yet they are many of them beautiful, and they are also easy of access, spacious and well sheltered from storms. Some of these bays are adorned with islands, which give a peculiar yet pleasing aspect to the water scenery. One of the most important we shall attempt, however, to describe, inasmuch as it washes a part of the eastern shore of Maine, and as it constitutes a prominent channel of communication between the United States and the British provinces of New Brunswick and

cotia. This is the Bay of Fundy. It sets up northeast round
ıble, the most southern part of Nova Scotia, and crosses to the
Maine a little west of Frenchman's bay. From Eastport to St.
New Brunswick, it is 60 miles. From St. John to Annapolis,
of that name on the Nova Scotia side, is 40 miles, and thence to
by land, is 80 miles. From Eastport direct to Annapolis, across
it is about 70 miles. The commerce that is prosecuted upon this
ween the citizens of the United States and our colonial neighbors,
:onsiderable. They receive from our own soil, bread-stuffs and
gricultural products, while, in return, we have from them large
:s of grindstones and gypsum, which are imbedded along the
of the bay, and are quarried and taken on board of the vessels
at the sides of the cliffs.

ıumerous islands which stud the coast of Maine, constitute one of
prominent features, and they are extremely diversified in their
:r. They exhibit, some of them, nothing but barren rocks, while
re fertile, and are densely-wooded or highly cultivated. Some of
'e low and swampy, while others are mountainous. Some are
of population, while others are inhabited by a people, who di-
ir time between the labors of agriculture, the fishery and the
trade. The islands along the shores and in its bays, are so nu-
that they can scarcely be designated by name; yet they tend to
the scenery, and to furnish shelter for the vessels that navigate
tion of the seacoast.

ave given this condensed view of the natural resources of Maine,
ıurpose of presenting the general features of the state in that re-
The seacoast, extending for more than 230 miles, and indented
ıerable bays, harbors and islands, renders it peculiarly adapted
;n commerce; while the rivers, the Penobscot, the Kennebec, the
x, the St. John and the Saco, with their tributaries, the Piscata-
Mattamweag, the Androscoggin, the Aroostook, the Walloostook,
Francis and the Allagash, penetrating the interior of the state,
numerous lakes and ponds, give to the agriculturist and the me-
:onvenient channels of transportation for their products, and fur-
undant water-power to the manufacturer and the lumberman.
:rgy of the population, descendants of the Plymouth colony, which
first lodgment of whites in this state, at York, in 1630, has al-
ıade rapid inroads into its forests, and is fast developing its re-

This population presents, in some of its essential features, the
the population of Massachusetts, with which it was connected as
'ict of Maine, until 1820, when it became an independent state.
dering the short time, a period of only about twenty-three years,
e state has been permitted independent action, it has made rapid
s in other branches of enterprise, especially as connected with
ure; yet the prominent sources of its prosperity are now comprised
mber trade, its ship-building, its fisheries and its crops of potatoes.
ındance of fine timber that is found within its limits, and the nu-
streams, which afford channels for rafts or sites for saw-mills, has
ıdered its lumber trade of considerable profit; while the material
at hand, and the *skill of the* people in ship-building, have enabled
construct vessels of the best models and with as great profit as
her portion of the Union. The proximity of the state, moreover,

to some of the most valuable fishing grounds of the coast, have induced the hardy and adventurous population, upon the borders and the islands of its bays, to launch their hundreds of fishing vessels into the thousand nooks and bays of the seashores, and even into the most dense fogs of the Grand Bank, for the capture of their finny spoil; while the 500,000 of its population is making rapid inroads into the forest, or advancing, in numerous ways, the common prosperity.

Compared with the greater part of the soil of the west, the land would not be deemed fertile; yet it is more favorable to agriculture than that of the principal portion of New England. The best soil in the state, may be found between the Penobscot and Kennebec, where it is excellent. The mountainous region in the northwest, is not favorable to agriculture, nor is that east of the Penobscot, of a superior quality, excepting around the sources of the St. John and the tributary streams. The less productive portion is, however, favorable for grazing. Among the principal agricultural articles of its export, are beef, pork and particularly potatoes. Yet agricultural enterprise has not advanced with those results, that are witnessed in those portions of the country where the lands are inexhaustible in their fertility, that are cut off, by their geographical position, from the benefits of foreign commerce, and where agricultural enterprise is the principal pursuit. Maine is still a sparsely populated state, containing, according to the census of 1840, a population of 501,793, scattered over a surface of 31,556 square miles; some of its counties are still unsettled, and remain in their original solitude. Yet the enterprise of its population has subdued a considerable portion of its more fertile valleys to agricultural labor, and the banks of its numerous streams are already adorned with prosperous villages and cultivated fields. The returns to which we have alluded, give to the state, upon an average, a population of only 15·½ to a square mile, although, of course, there is great inequality in the amount of settlement in its various parts, some counties being destitute of settlers, while others are densely populated. In 1840, there were produced in the state of Maine, 848,166 bushels of wheat, 355,161 bushels of barley, 1,076,409 bushels of oats, 137,941 bushels of rye, 51,543 bushels of buckwheat, 950,528 bushels of Indian corn, 1,465,551 pounds of wool, 36,940 pounds of hops, 6,723½ pounds of wax, 10,392,280 bushels of potatoes, for the production of which the soil is peculiarly adapted, 691,358 tons of hay, 257,464 pounds of sugar, 205,011 cords of wood were sold, and the value of the products of the dairy was $1,496,902.

But, although Maine may not be considered a prominent agricultural state, yet, in commerce, she stands the third in the Union. The length of her seacoast, her numerous harbors, her general maritime position and the genius of her people, have all conspired to direct the energies of her population to pursuits connected with the sea. Previous to the year 1807, when the wars in Europe gave to the United States a large share of the carrying trade of the world, the inhabitants of this section of New England embarked largely in commerce; and it was only when the embargo locked up her ports, that this enterprise was diverted from the coast to agricultural pursuits in the interior. The total value of imports during the year, ending on the 30th day of September, 1841, was as follows:—

	In American vessels.	In foreign vessels.	Total.
Value of imports,.....	$574,664	$126,297	$700,961
Exports domestic produce,.....	1,029,905	48,728	1,078,633
" *foreign produce,*.....	1,649	11,283	12,932

er to enable our readers to judge somewhat of the actual amount mmerce of Maine, we subjoin a statement exhibiting the num- nerican and foreign vessels, with their tonnage and crews, which rom each district of the state during the year ending September 41 :—

	American.			*Foreign.*			*Total Amer. and For.*		
	No.	Tons.	Crews.	No.	Tons.	Crews.	No.	Tons.	Crews.
oddy,.	49	6,232	254	730	49,903	2,798	779	56,135	3,052
.....	20	2,843	123	....	.....	.....	20	2,843	123
.....	26	3,654	149	1	338	20	27	3,992	169
ugh,..	17	2,737	105	....	.....	.....	17	2,737	105
.....	18	2,867	118	....	.....	.....	18	2,867	118
.....	108	18,842	827	11	914	54	119	19,756	881
.....	195	36,895	1,570	74	5,258	340	269	42,153	1,910
.....	105	15,373	694	5	266	14	110	15,639	703
,.....	4	835	37	....	.....	.....	4	835	37
.....	4	486	26	....	.....	.....	4	486	26
.....	546	90,764	3,903	821	56,679	3,226	1,367	147,443	7,124

Tonnage of each District of Maine, on the 30th September, 1841.

	Agg. tonnage of each District, in tons and 95ths.	Proportion of tonnage employed in— Coasting trade.	Cod fishery.	Mackerel fishery.	Whale fishery.	St'm Nav.
oddy,.....	10,588.41	6,901	1,214	553	.....	.....
.....	14,147.81	12,189	563	.....	.....	.....
's Bay,.....	15,427.70	10,827	2,269	.....	.....	.....
.....	36,125.77	23,580	6,351	94	.....	.....
.....	39,613.81	30,358	1,327	.....	.....	.....
ugh,.....	51,257.31	34,356	4,557	.....	.....	.....
.....	13,415.44	2,095	6,715	89	388	.....
.....	58,050.48	21,466	1,716	55	.....	1,104
....	55,009.86	13,843	3,153	498	.....	.....
.....	2,902.18	1,991	250	.....	.....	.....
,.....	7,709.08	1,188	723	.....	.....	.....
.....	1,042.62	729	314	.....	.....	.....
al,.....	305,290.57	159,523	29,152	1,289	388	1,104

g given in a former table, a list of the vessels, both American ign, with their tonnage and crews, which cleared from each dis- Maine during the year ending on the 30th of September, 1841, in a statement, exhibiting the number of vessels which entered ne same period. These vessels are employed in the foreign d especially in that with the West Indies; the coastwise trade, ing lumber, fish, potatoes and like agricultural products, either itish colonies or to the city of Boston, and other American ports; he importation of whatever articles are required by its popu-

Navigation.

exhibiting the number of American and Foreign vessels, with their Tonnage ws, which entered into each District of Maine, during the year ending on the ptember, 1841.

	American.			Foreign.			Tot. Amer. and For.		
	No.	Tons.	Crews.	No.	Tons.	Crews.	No.	Tons.	Crews.
oddy.,	79	8,615	426	726	49,622	2,782	805	58,237	3,208
.....	3	292	12	....	.....	.....	3	292	12
.....	7	1,423	59	1	338	20	8	1,761	79

NAVIGATION—Continued.

Statement exhibiting the number of American and Foreign vessels, with their Tonnage and Crews, which entered into each District of Maine, during the year ending on the 30th September, 1841.

Districts.	American. No.	Tons.	Crews.	Foreign. No.	Tons.	Crews.	Tot. Amer. and For. No.	Tons.	Crews.
Waldoborough,..	13	3,213	118	....	.....	.....	13	3,213	118
Wiscasset,.....	6	2,189	93	....	.....	.....	6	2,189	93
Bath,.....	44	11,666	442	11	914	54	55	12,580	496
Portland,.....	102	22,477	933	72	5,024	326	174	27,501	1,259
Belfast,.....	38	4,421	204	5	266	14	43	4,687	218
Total,.....	292	54,296	2,287	815	56,164	3,196	1,107	110,460	5,483

But the trade in lumber is the branch of enterprise, which distinguishes it from the other states of New England, and it has long been a source of considerable profit. Those who have passed through the state, must have observed the extensive tracts of pine which cover the ground at frequent points. Along the valleys of the Penobscot, the Kennebec and their tributaries, there are stretched out unmeasured forests of pine timber, of the most valuable sort, which are worked up to great advantage by the hardy lumbermen of that region. This lumber trade of Maine, indeed, exhibits features peculiar to the state, and somewhat bordering on the romantic, if the romantic can apply to any form of mercantile enterprise. Large bodies of lumbermen, annually penetrate its pine forests for the purpose of felling the trees which are to be manufactured into boards; and in the summer, the logs are formed into rafts and propelled down the rivers, by these enterprising men, to their respective places of deposit, where they are either made into boards, or marked and left in safe places of deposit, where they may be used when required. It was our fortune to witness many of these rafts thus propelled by the Maine lumbermen, while ascending the Kennebec during the last season. These rafts were urged forward, by oars or poles; and from the fact that those who were thus urging them forward, were almost invariably dressed in red flannel shirts, they appeared in the distance as if in uniform, and certainly presented a very picturesque effect. Yet the lumbermen of Maine, although their peculiar habitudes of life tend to give them a distinct and strongly-marked character, exhibit some of the most valuable traits. They are remarkable for hardihood and energy, combined with an honest liberality and knowledge of the world, springing equally from the character of their pursuits and their natural sagacity and intelligence.

The principal channels of the lumber trade of Maine, are the valleys of the Penobscot, the Kennebec and their tributaries. The magnitude of those rivers, and the direct channels which they afford for floating rafts even to the ocean, if required, together with the populous settlements upon their banks, with the facilities which they furnish for the manufacture of the various sorts of lumber required both for building and for export, and the vast tracts of valuable pine timber growing in this section of the state, render these rivers the prominent depots of the lumber trade. Upon all the tributaries of the Penobscot, rafts are floated down to the places of export, and the lumber manufactured is thence shipped to almost every part of the world. Above the city of Bangor, there are *more than* 250 saw-mills, which are constantly at work sawing into *boards the timber* brought into their yards, and these are able to manu*facture 200,000,000* feet of boards during the year, the most of which,

excepting that used in house and ship-building, must be shipped at the port of Bangor. Within the limits of this city, also, there are between 50 and 60 more saw-mills, employed in the same sort of labor. The city of Bangor is, indeed, the largest depot for lumber upon the continent of America. We may judge somewhat of the amount of its lumber trade, from the fact, that boards, timber, shingles, clapboards, oars, scantling-wood and such products, are annually shipped from its port to the amount of between $1,000,000 and $1,500,000; that, during the season of navigation, 1,200 vessels, each of about 110 tons burden, are every year employed in exporting lumber, timber and such products of the forest, to various places; and that there are besides belonging to this place, about 100 sail of coasting vessels, 50 employed in foreign commerce, and 50 engaged in the fisheries.

The Kennebec is another principal channel of the lumber trade, and, in its general features, it presents the same aspect as this species of enterprise which is prosecuted upon the Penobscot. The pine timber is in the same mode rafted down the river to some one of the flourishing villages upon its banks, where it is manufactured into boards and thence exported. In floating down this river during the last summer, in one of the Boston steamboats, we were astonished at the extent of enterprise which exists, in what the people of the middle states are accustomed to regard as a remote section of the Union. We found Augusta, a beautiful settlement, now the capital of Maine, in a state of the utmost prosperity, and commanding, from its elegant state-house, the view of a panorama of magnificent scenery, which was refreshing to gaze upon. Lower down upon the bank, was Hallowell, another thriving settlement, but three or four miles from the former place; and yet a little lower, Gardiner, another little city of great activity, with one of its neighboring hills adorned with an edifice, that we have scarcely seen equalled in splendor, in any other section of the country. Besides the substantial ships moored in the river, or unlading their cargoes, the bustle of business, the rafts descending the river, or the logs bordering it and awaiting the action of the saw-mill, could not fail to convince the beholder that the valley of the Kennebec was eminently prosperous. A writer in a late number of the North American Review, upon the timber lands of Maine, enters into an estimate of its timber trade, in 1843, in which he sets down the value of the trade in Washington county, at three-quarters of a million of dollars; that of Kennebec, at half a million; Somerset, Waldo and York, one-fifth of a million each; Hancock, Lincoln and Cumberland, one-tenth of a million each; and the remaining counties, one-tenth of a million more; the total amount being two and three-quarters of a million. In the absence of any more authentic data, for that year, we feel disposed to take this estimate as accurate. The statistics of the forest, quarry, &c., taken by order of Congress, in 1840, give us as exact information as could be obtained, respecting this branch of enterprise, during that year. There is one consideration connected with the lumber trade of Maine, however, which should receive the calm deliberation of its people. The forests of Maine now abound in that species of lumber which is peculiarly valuable at the present time, and is growing more so every successive year. It is understood that some of the largest sort of pine timber, especially *the species used for masts, is* growing scarce, even if found at all; and it *would seem to be a mark* of prudence for those who own choice timber

tracts, to use them with careful husbandry, remembering that time makes formidable ravages in the physical world, and that soon the lumber of these forests will be much enhanced in value.

The St. John, now forming the northern boundary of Maine, after it is joined by the St. Francis, is also beginning to be a prominent channel of the lumber trade. According to the treaty of 1842, by which the north-eastern boundary of the United States was fixed, it has been opened to the free navigation of the inhabitants of the territory, from which it flows in Maine, to convey the products of their industry and skill to market, and to return supplies to the population. A large quantity of timber is now drifted down to the city of St. John, by that river, and it has been estimated that, during the present year, 100,000 tons of timber will find their way to this settlement by that channel, the total value of which will be about $600,000.

It would seem from the returns to which we have alluded, that the lumber trade is prosecuted in almost every county of the state. There is scarcely a stream that will float a raft, and whose banks are bordered by timber, that is not used either to carry this timber to the principal depots upon the main rivers, or to propel a saw-mill for its manufacture into boards. In the subjoined table, we have not only the value of the lumber produced in each county, in 1840, but various other items, showing the character of the productive industry of the state:—

PRODUCTS OF THE FOREST, QUARRY, &c., ACCORDING TO THE CENSUS RETURNS OF 1840.

Counties.	Value of lumber.	Tons of pot and pearl ashes.	Value of skins and furs.	Val. of ginseng, &c.
Aroostook,	$50,141	.....	$1,297	.....
Cumberland,	44,379	22	52	$73
Franklin,	8,264	42½	219	255
Hancock,	63,120	.....	468	.....
Kennebeck,	214,560	30¾	198	1,891
Lincoln,	71,955	.....	50	445
Oxford,	29,280	36¼	228	.....
Penobscot,	668,701	30	2,171	125
Piscataquis,	16,345	7	898	.....
Somerset,	123,420	64¼	1,959	1,900
Washington,	315,607	.....	273	24,910
Waldo,	104,053	13½	56	2,672
York,	98,861	14½	158	.....
Total,	$1,808,683	260¾	$8,027	$32,271

PRODUCTS OF THE FOREST, QUARRY, &c.—Continued.

Counties.	Val. of granite, marble, &c.	Val. of products of the dairy.	Val. of products of the orchard.	Pounds of hops.
Aroostook,	.....	$18,383	$6	$30
Cumberland,	$22,831	182,726	24,542	156
Franklin,	.....	62,121	2,581	.....
Hancock,	20,300	75,582	1,874	.....
Kennebeck,	8,100	205,173	31,790	1,367
Lincoln,	35,345	171,432	21,419	1,868
Oxford,	.....	94,394	12,326	161
Penobscot,	330	85,558	5,891	16,355
Piscataquis,	.....	21,617	768	1,500
Somerset,	800	117,771	15,436	1,171
Washington,	1,750	93,170	1,251	60
Waldo,	11,500	126,390	7,890	6,610
York,	6,550	242,585	20,610	7,662
Total,	$107,506	$1,496,902	$149,384	$36,940

Another branch of enterprise in which the people of Maine have long been distinguished, is that of ship-building. According to the census of 1840, the value of the vessels built within the bounds of this state, was greater than that of any other state in the Union, it amounting to $1,844,902; and we are informed that, during the year 1841, there was here built within 720 tons as much shipping for the Atlantic service as in all the states south and west of Pennsylvania, for their sea, river and lake navigation. From the earliest periods of its colonization, indeed, the settlers upon this part of the coast appear to have possessed a genius for ship-building, and various circumstances seem to have favored this branch of enterprise. They were originally, in good measure confined to the coast, and possessed every motive for the prosecution of commerce in the exportation of lumber and fish to the West Indies and other foreign ports. Since that time, there have been equal motives for carrying on the business of ship-building, not only for their own use, but also for foreign markets in the gradual increase of the commerce of the coast. Increased numbers of vessels are annually required for its foreign trade, the coast-wise trade likewise employs many, in the exportation of its products and the importation of those articles received in return, while the fisheries furnish a market for no small number of those launched at the ship-yards. Besides the acknowledged skill of the ship-builders along the shores of Maine, in constructing vessels of strength and speed, they possess extraordinary advantages for this purpose in the numerous eligible sites for ship-yards at the mouths of its numerous navigable streams, and in the abundance of timber of the various sorts used for that object, in its extensive forests of valuable lumber. We subjoin a statement exhibiting the vessels built in each district of Maine, during the year ending the 30th of September, 1841:—

SHIP-BUILDING.

Statement showing the number and class of Vessels built, and the Tonnage, in each District of Maine, for the year ending September 30, 1841.

Districts.	Ships.	Brigs.	Schrs.	Sloops.	Total.	Tot. tonnage, in tons and 95ths.
Passamaquoddy,	...	6	3	...	9	1,288.55
Machias,	1	3	4	...	8	1,295.87
Frenchman's Bay,	...	3	2	...	5	837.41
Penobscot,	...	2	1	...	3	336.77
Belfast,	2	10	13	...	25	3,810.34
Waldoborough,	11	13	9	...	33	7,761.59
Wiscasset,	1	...	4	...	5	703.06
Bath,	10	5	5	...	20	4,980.01
Portland,	7	5	3	1	16	4,163.12
Saco,	1	...	2	...	3	673.61
Kennebunk,	2	...	2	...	4	1,023.70
York,	...	...	...	...	...	.....
Total,	35	47	48	1	131	26,874.28

The fisheries of Maine, constitute an interesting and peculiar feature of its maritime enterprise. The hardy fishermen along its coast, like those of the neighboring states, whether riding on the waves off the coast of Labrador and the banks of Newfoundland, in their little fleets, or whether they have been found manning our merchant ships upon the mid ocean, or advancing the stars and stripes through the thick smoke of our naval battles, have long earned for themselves an honored reputation for

industry, patriotism and courage. Cultivating little patches of soil for the support of their families, upon the rocky coast or among the thousand little islands that are sprinkled over its waters, during certain seasons of the year; they are found at other times employed in those fishing expeditions, which, doubtless to them are sources of pleasure, as well as of profit. The coast of Maine, moreover, abounds with fish of various sorts; and it is alleged that more than sixty species are found in the waters of its shores and bays, its rivers and ponds. The salmon ascends its rivers, and is caught in abundance by fixtures of stakes driven upon their banks. Besides these, are the cod, the haddock and the hake, the halibut, the mackerel and bass, the shad, the black trout and salmon trout, the herring, perch, eel, flounder, tom-cod, smelt and various other kinds of scarcely less value. The lobstes, clam, crab, shrimp, craw-fish, muscle, but not the oyster, are found upon the banks and among the rocks along its shores. Its coast is, moreover, sometimes visited in the distance, by the porpoise and the seal; and even the humpback and grampus-whale, are seen from its bays. The fishermen of Maine, however, do not, as is probably well-known, confine themselves to the immediate coast, but adventure out in voyages of many months duration, into the open sea, keeping the coast as far as practicable. In the cod, mackerel and herring fishery, the foreign fishing grounds which they most usually frequent, are the Bay of Fundy and the Bay of Chaleurs. Sometimes they may be found in the Gulf of St. Lawrence and the Straits of Bellisle, and their fishing smacks are often descried, seeking their finny prey, off the coast of Labrador, and whole fleets are anchored at once near the banks of Newfoundland. To those who are aware of the importance of the New England fishery, since the earliest colonization of its shores, the subjoined table, exhibiting the product of the fishery in 1840, will be interesting, and, perhaps, valuable:—

	Fisheries.			
Counties.	Quintals of smoked or dried fish.	Barrels of p'kl'd fish.	Gallons of sp. oil.	Galls. of whale and other fish oil.
Aroostook,	.....	40	.....	.....
Cumberland,	22,553	918	.....	9,479
Franklin,	.....	.....	.....	.....
Hancock,	65,824	15,168	.....	21,300
Kennebeck,	.....	9	.....	.....
Lincoln,	88,376	4,934	1,044	38,524
Oxford,	.....	.....	.....	.....
Penobscot,	1,050	153	.....	442
Piscataquis,	.....	.....	.....	.....
Somerset,	.....	.....	.....	.....
Washington,	36,878	28,774	.....	16,287
Waldo,	30,597	3,570	.....	18,118
York,	33,878	505	.....	13,667
Total,	279,156	54,071	1,044	117,807

	Fisheries—Continued.		
Counties.	Value of whale-bone, and other productions of the fisheries.	Number of men employed.	Cap. invested.
Aroostook,	.....	.....	.....
Cumberland,	.....	219	$23,100
Franklin,	.....	.....	.....

FISHERIES—Continued.

Counties.	Value of whale-bone, and other productions of the fisheries.	Number of men employed.	Cap. invested.
Hancock,	$200	462	$49,470
Kennebeck,	140	2	100
Lincoln,	.....	1,312	187,906
Oxford,	.....	.....	.....
Penobscot,	.....	16	1,950
Piscataquis,	.....	.....	20
Somerset,	.....	.....	.....
Washington,	.....	829	170,030
Waldo,	2,011	433	72,373
York,	.....	337	22,018
Total,	2,351	3,610	$526,967

The advance of manufactures throughout Maine, has not been proportioned to that of other prominent enterprises connected with the lumber trade, commerce and the fisheries, and this has resulted from the circumstances of the state. It has been found more productive for the people to engage in commerce, a pursuit which has been long a settled form of business with them, to cut the timber with which their forests abound, to build vessels, with all the appliances at hand for that purpose, or to adventure in expeditions of the fishery, rather than to engage in those manufactures which require a considerable amount of capital, while they naturally come in as a secondary pursuit after the soil has been subdued and capital has been accumulated. Yet the state abounds in decided natural advantages for manufacturing establishments. It possesses abundant water-power in its numerous rivers and waterfalls, an industrious population and a healthful climate. A broad foundation has, moreover, been laid for manufacturing enterprises on the Kennebec, in the construction of the Kennebec dam, a work of considerable magnitude and cost, at the city of Augusta, which presents as distinguished facilities for manufacturing enterprise as any part of New England. The salubrity of the climate, the picturesque beauty of the surrounding scenery and the improvements now in progress at that point, will doubtless place Augusta among the most prosperous settlements of the Union. From the census of 1840, we learn that there are but 532 persons employed throughout the state in the manufacture of wool, that there were but six cotton manufactories, three dyeing and printing establishments and that the value of manufactured articles was small compared with the adjoining states in this section of the country. As other resources of the state, however, become diminished, the manufacturing facilities, which it possesses in a remarkable degree, will doubtless be improved.

The accumulated capital of this state is hardly to be compared to that of the older states of New England, but still it is already considerable. Being, until a comparatively recent period, but a remote district of Massachusetts, and with resources even now but partially developed, there has not been allowed either the time or the opportunity for a very extensive accumulation of capital; but as enterprise opens new sources of wealth, the means of the people in that respect will doubtless be increased. We have *before us an* abstract from the returns of the cashiers *of the several incorporated banks* in Maine, as they existed on the Saturday preceding the first Monday of January, 1844, indicating the condi-

tion of the several banks of the state at that time, a part of which we here subjoin:—

Banks.	Cap. stock.	Circulation.	Tot. amount due from the bank.	Tot. amount of resources of the bank.	Last dividend.
Androscoggin,	$50,000	$31,589	$96,730 52	$96,730 52	3 pr. cent.
Augusta,	110,000	61,452	240,990 38	240,990 38	3 "
Bank of Bangor,	100,000	68,121	208,718 26	208,718 26	3 "
Bank of Cumberland,	100,000	75,424	253,236 38	253,236 38	3 "
Bank of Westbrook,	50,000	31,316	91,110 73	91,110 73	3 "
Belfast,	50,000	47,108	115,038 01	115,038 01	3½ "
Brunswick,	75,000	29,624	115,503 27	115,503 27	1½ "
Canal,	400,000	142,615	669,399 61	669,399 61	$2 pr. sh.
Casco,	300,000	72,230	456,873 92	456,873 92	2 pr. cent.
Central,	50,000	58,891	153,399 89	153,399 89	$2 pr. sh.
Commercial,	50,000	27,787	91,804 57	91,804 57	3 pr. cent.
Calais,	50,000	23,950	90,239 73	90,239 73	6 "
Eastern,	50,000	51,444	138,552 90	138,552 90	3 "
Franklin,	50,000	18,716	83,260 51	83,260 51	3 "
Freeman's,	50,000	34,183	101,377 82	101,377 82	3 "
Frontier,	75,000	13,373	125,412 09	125,412 09	3 "
Granite,	75,000	39,899	137,129 17	137,129 17	3 "
Gardiner,	100,000	42,575	179,650 79	179,650 79	3 "
Kenduskeag,	100,000	71,600	224,443 54	224,443 54	2 "
Lincoln,	100,000	81,256	248,998 95	248,998 95	5 "
Lime Rock,	50,000	31,300	104,519 22	104,519 22	3 "
Manufacturer's,	100,000	42,415	160,087 90	160,087 90	3 "
Manuf. and Trader's,	75,000	34,950	127,490 11	127,490 11	2½ "
Mariner's,	50,000	36,816	96,963 60	96,963 60	3 "
Mercantile,	50,000	19,388	74,533 86	74,533 86	3 "
Merchant's,	150,000	96,830	381,836 11	381,836 11	3 "
Medomak,	50,000	34,018	93,952 80	93,952 80	3 "
Megunticook,	49,000	22,500	74,774 81	74,774 81	3 "
Northern,	75,000	35,643	133,580 40	133,580 40	3 "
Sagadahock,	50,000	24,622	93,657 66	93,657 66	3 "
South Berwick,	50,000	36,707	115,723 50	115,723 50	3½ "
Skowhegan,	75,000	40,297	126,339 85	126,339 85	3 "
Ticonic,	75,000	40,700	131,434 51	131,434 51	3 "
Thomaston,	50,000	37,189	106,822 13	106,822 13	2½ "
York,	75,000	50,135	146,923 80	146,923 80	3 "
Total,	$3,009,000	$1,606,663	$5,790,511 30	$5,790,511 30	

We have alluded to the circumstance that Maine is still a new state, and but sparsely populated when compared with the other states of New England. The most eligible counties along the banks of the rivers, are now many of them densely-settled, and present the mingled aspects of thriving villages and cultivated fields; while others exhibit the same dense forests, as when the original colonists first entered within its boundaries, and now spread out extensive tracts whose silence is seldom disturbed but by the lumberman's axe, or a solitary moose which, perchance, lingers near its ancient haunts. From the subjoined table, it appears that the county of Somerset has a population of only eight to a square mile; Piscataquis, but two and a half; and Aroostook only two.

POPULATION

To a square mile, of the several Counties in Maine, according to the census of 1840.

Counties.	Sq. miles.	Pop. 1840.	Pop. to sq. m.
Aroostook,	4,946	9,913	2
Cumberland,	961	68,858	71½
Franklin,	1,903	20,901	11½

POPULATION

To a square mile, of the several Counties of Maine, etc.—Continued.

Counties.	Sq. miles.	Pop. 1840.	Pop. to sq. m.
Hancock,.....	1,826	28,605	15¼
Kennebeck,.....	953	55,823	58½
Lincoln,.....	1,000	63,517	63½
Oxford,.....	2,295	38,351	16¾
Penobscot,.....	3,282	45,705	14
Piscataquis,.....	5,702	13,138	2¼
Somerset,.....	4,192	33,912	8
Waldo,.....	963	28,327	29½
Washington,.....	2,703	41,509	11½
York,.....	928	54,034	58¼
Total,.....	31,556	501,793	...

Population to a square mile in the state, 15¾.

Another circumstance which renders the condition of Maine somewhat ingular as a New England state, is the fact of its owning a considerable uantity of public land. Extensive tracts of such lands belonged to the tate of Massachusetts, within the boundaries of Maine, formerly when hey were united, but when the latter became an independent state, as it id in 1820, these lands, then comprising 11,308,000 acres, became the oint property of the two states.* By the late treaty with the British overnment, made in 1842, a tract of 3,207,680 acres was conveyed to hem, leaving 8,100,320 acres, one-half of which, namely 4,050,160 acres elonged to Maine. Soon after the organization of Maine as an inde- endent state, and when the state of Massachusetts proposed to sell to Maine her own portion of the public lands, they were appraised at a very ow rate, the most valuable, lying within four townships, being estimated t from twenty to twenty-five cents an acre. From the erection of Maine nto an independent state, down to the year 1841, there were granted and old by the state 1,466,200 acres, leaving 2,583,960 acres as its public omain, a considerable portion of which is well situated and sufficiently ertile, now constituting a part of the financial resources of the state.

Nor has the state been wanting in vigorous efforts to establish the means of education for its increasing population. With the original ounders of New England, it has started upon the broad doctrine, that the ducation of the people constitutes the foundation of individual respecta- bility and good government. Commencing with free schools, it has pro- vided by law for the raising in every town of the state, an annual sum equal to forty cents for each person in the town, in order to the support

* A great sale of timber-land, of townships, comprising eight whole townships, and two fractions, in Maine, belonging to that state and Massachusetts, was recently sold at auction in Bangor, at prices as follows:—

¼ of S. W.	No. 5,	R. 10,	5,558	acres, at	50½ cents per acre.
½ of N.	" 7,	R. 10,	8,007	"	50½ "
	" 8,	R. 10,	23,760	"	50½ "
	" 6,	R. 12,	23,554.60	"	$1 73½ "
	" 7,	R. 12,	24,240.03	"	1 81½ "
	" 8,	R. 12,	28,424.60	"	1 91 "
	" 7,	R. 13,	24,292.40	"	1 17 "
	" 8,	R. 13,	23,835.87	"	2 19 "
	" 6,	R. 14,	23,788.71	"	1 11 "
	" 8,	R. 14,	23,820.74	"	1 49½ "

In each township, there was reserved to the amount of 1,000 acres for public uses. Th *nett amount of acres sold was 195,425.*

of schools, and it is thus seen that the sum is increased in proportion to the increase of population. During the year 1841, the number of school districts throughout the state was 3,477, the sum raised for their support was $200,718, and the number of scholars attending them was in the ratio of 34 per cent to the whole population; while the number of academies, high schools and seminaries, was 183, all of which are in a prosperous state.

The higher branches of education are also liberally provided for, in the state, by the organization of collegiate institutions of respectable character, the principal of which are Waterville and Bowdoin colleges. The former is situated in the county of Kennebec; its libraries contain 7,500 volumes. Bowdoin College, in Brunswick, is an institution of more importance. It is situated on an extensive plain in Cumberland county, with a grove of pines in the rear. It has libraries containing about 22,000 volumes, a large and valuable mineralogical cabinet, a gallery of paintings, and all the apparatus required for lectures and other purposes connected with instruction. During the time of its incorporation, grants of public lands were made to this institution by the legislature of Massachusetts, donations, both of land and also of money, have been given by the states of Massachusetts and Maine, and aid of less amount has been derived from individuals. The means, both of common and collegiate education, will doubtless go on increasing and prospering as the population advances, and be made an ever-flowing fountain of intellectual and moral blessings to the people.

We should be wanting in our duty, perhaps, were we to fail to mention Portland, the principal city of Maine, in an article upon the state. From the earliest period of its colonization, it has been a point from which a considerable commerce has been prosecuted, and a large amount of manufactured lumber sent to the West Indies and to the colonies upon the continent. While it was a colonial possession of Great Britain, it was the principal port upon the coast, from which the English navy was supplied with masts and spars that were transported in large ships owned abroad. At the commencement of the war of the revolution, valuable shipping was owned here, but it was destined to suffer a catastrophe which nearly destroyed its then existing prosperity, being, in 1775, bombarded by a British fleet. From the close of the revolution to the year 1807, the progress of the place continued to be rapid; but as it had derived its prosperity mainly from commerce, the restrictions to trade which followed, produced disastrous consequences to the commercial interest. On the occurrence of the peace of 1815, however, the old channels of commerce were revived, and new sources of prosperity were opened, until it became the most prominent commercial depot upon this section of the coast. It now, as it is understood, carries on a large amount of commerce with the West Indies, and has advanced to the size of the third commercial city in New England. Situated upon Casco bay, between hills with the buildings rising in the form of an amphitheatre, it commands a noble view of the sea; its harbor is sprinkled with numerous picturesque islands, and, in approaching, it presents an imposing appearance. The access to the city is easy, and the harbor is capacious and *secure, while* the Cumberland and Oxford canal furnish to it a water communication into the interior for the distance of nearly fifty miles. It is, moreover, the nearest seaboard market for the fertile territory upon the

upper waters of the Connecticut river, and it conducts a prosperous coastwise and foreign trade. Its aspect gives evidence of wealth, its streets are broad and elegant, its mansions are many of them costly, and its people intelligent and moral. Possessing, according to the census of 1840, a population of 15,218, it has already laid the foundation of an extensive city; possessing, in the state of its public press, in its sixteen houses of religious worship and in its merchants' exchange, of granite, all the appliances of Christian enlightenment and of prosperous trade.

The works of intercommunication between the state of Maine and the adjacent territories, projected, as well as already constructed, will doubtless tend to advance the prosperity of the people. A railroad has already been finished, as it is well known, between Boston and Portland, through the principal towns of Massachusetts, New Hampshire and Maine, lying along its track for the distance of 110 miles. Another track, denominated the Boston and Maine railroad, branches off from the Boston and Lowell railway, at Wilmington, Massachusetts, about fifteen miles from Boston, and thence extends through the most densely settled part of that section of the country, to Portland by another route. These lines will doubtless be extended soon from Portland, through some of the principal towns of Maine, to Bangor upon the Penobscot, 227 miles from the city of Boston.

Another enterprise has also been projected, and will doubtless at some future time be carried out, designed to carry out a railroad from Portland or some other point on the seaboard of Maine, to some point upon the borders of Lower Canada, in the direction of Quebec. Several routes have been examined, and the reports made regarding them have been very favorable. By surveys that have been made, it seems that Portland is but 280 miles from Ogdensburgh upon the St. Lawrence.

From the condensed view we have taken of the resources of Maine, it appears that they are considerable and are in the progress of rapid development. Its forests supply the great bulk of the lumber now used in the northern states, and its vessels crowd the harbor of Boston and are found discharging their cargoes or taking in supplies, at the principal settlements along the coast, as well as in foreign ports. Massachusetts derives a great portion of its timber, wood and potatoes, from the fleets of vessels that ply from its cities and villages into the port of Boston. The products of its ship-yards float in every sea, and its fisheries constitute an important item in the productive resources of New England. The commerce of Maine and Massachusetts is intimately connected, and regular lines of steamboats now run from Boston to Portland and the prominent villages of the Kennebec. The period of speculation in worthless pine lands has passed away, and that of vigorous industry has commenced. As the products of its forests diminish, the plough will advance further upon its now wooded plains and valleys, and the water-wheel and the trip-hammer will resound upon its streams. Its intelligent people appreciate their advantages, and have already laid the foundation of a solid and permanent prosperity, in the means of education that they have already provided. In the extent of its territory and its present population, it has already attained the prominence of a powerful state, and although its star twinkles in a northern sky, it yet shines among the brightest and most benignant *in the constellation of* the Union.

ART. III.—COMMERCE OF JAVA.

FEW places in the world can exhibit such an expansion of trade as has taken place of late years in Java, a noble island subject to Holland. This has arisen mainly from its great fertility, the low price at which labor can be procured, and the pains which the government have taken to turn these advantages to the best account, by the formation of roads and by the encouragement of European capital in the culture of the soil. Much is also due to the accessibility of its northern coast to the richest countries of Asia, and to the circumstance of its capital (the seat of government of the Dutch East India Company) having been made the centre of the commerce between Europe and the extensive settlement of the Dutch in the Indian Archipelago. It is situated between latitude 6° and 9° south, and longitude 105° and 115° east, and has an area, including the adjoining island of Madura, of 45,724 square miles, and a population of 5,000,000. Java and Madura are divided into twenty provinces or residences. The Dutch have had settlements on this island since 1619, but it is only of late years that it has been wholly subdued. It was taken by the British, in 1811, and restored in 1816.

Java is divided, nearly in its whole length, by a range of mountains of volcanic origin, running almost east and west, and varying in their elevation from 5,000 to 12,000 feet. The west is that chiefly subjected to European influence, and is, in general, more level and capable of cultivation than the east part, which is mountainous and wooded, though diversified with rich valleys. This part is cultivated upon the native system, and is occupied by princes tributary to Holland. The island is well watered, and, upon the whole, is the most fertile and most improved of all the eastern islands. The mineral products are trifling. Saltpetre is found, and salt is manufactured on the coast, near Batavia. The most important natural production is teak, which would be largely exported were not the trade subjected to a rigid monopoly. The chief objects of cultivation are rice, coffee, sugar and spices, the produce of which has been very greatly increased of late years. Tobacco and a variety of other tropical articles are also produced, and immense sums have recently been expended by the government to grow tea, silk, &c., with, however, but little success. Edible birds' nests are obtained in great quantity from the rocks, called Karang Bolang, on the south coast. Arrack and sugar are manufactured extensively by the Chinese at Batavia. In other respects, manufacturing industry is nearly confined to the coarse fabrics woven by the poorer natives.

The principal ports and those to which foreign trade is confined, are Batavia, Samarang and Sourabaya, on the north coast, where the sea being usually smooth and the weather moderate, good anchorage may be found at nearly all seasons. The south coast, owing to its complete exposure to the Indian ocean, has no good harbors, and is, therefore, but little frequented. The best in this quarter are Chelachap and Pachitan. Produce, especially rice, is shipped from most of these ports, but almost the whole of the external commerce is concentrated at Batavia. About 105,000 lasts of shipping enter the ports of Java and Madura annually, *embracing* 80,000 Dutch, 10,000 British and 15,000 lasts belonging to *the United* States and other countries.

Batavia, the chief port of Java, and, indeed, of the whole eastern

s advantageously situated at the mouth of the Jacatra, on the t coast, at the bottom of an extensive bay. A circular range of helter the roads, and insures safe anchorage; but the water is and large vessels lie about three miles from the shore. The s sultry, and varies little throughout the year, ranging from 72° he rainy season is from October to March, when westerly winds the dry, from June to October, the period of the east monsoon. town was proverbially unhealthy, and though of late years ren- ore salubrious, by the improvement of the canals and the demo- several streets, is inhabited only by natives and Chinese. Eu- and Americans, though they still transact their business there, r residence at Welteroreeden, a new town, several miles inland, e likewise the government establishments. Batavia is the cen- mmerce with Europe, India, China and America. Besides ex- the produce of Java for the imports from these countries, it is pot for the productions of all the eastern islands in Japan.

nports into the island of Java,* which, in 1827, including specie, l to 17,656,201 florins,† increased, in 1839, to 24,961,012 florins; the same period, the exports increased from 14,868,227 florins, 3,833 florins. Of the goods imported in 1839, there were from nd America 16,172,865 florins, (including 10,878,108 florins from erlands, and 3,878,880 florins from Great Britain,) chiefly con- linen and cotton stuffs, iron and copper wares, wines and spirits, goods, provisions and Levant opium; Eastern Archipelago, 4 florins, comprising principally wax, coffee, gambier, gold dust, ood, cotton, wool, oil, rattans, spices, &c.; China, Manilla and 607,614 florins; Japan, 680,800 florins; Western India and 347,877. The leading exports in 1839, were as follows:—

	Quantity—Peculs.	Value—Florins.
,.....peculs	757,476	23,860,499
.....	842,017	10,946,222
.....	1,103,378	4,689,553
,.....lbs.	1,191,636	3,574,909
tin,.....peculs	47,631	2,381,577
ge,.....	5,026	508,014
co,..... ..rodies	2,809	842,892
of cloves,.....	.....	712,707
nests,.....peculs	280	559,750

hief other articles were sandal-wood, yarns, rum, hides, copper epper and gold dust. The principal places to which the ship- re made, were—

	Florins.		Florins.
rlands,.....	49,092,471	America,.....	957,523
chipelago,.....	9,033,716	France,.....	832,737
.....	2,093,882	Australia,.....	725,104
in,.....	1,938,506		

utch trade is chiefly in the hands of a commercial association, n 1825, whose capital amounts to 97,000,000 florins, (nearly

1 authentic tabular statement, showing the quantity of the exports of that racing coffee, sugar, rice, indigo, tea, nutmegs, mace, cloves, rattans, hides, pepper, the reader is referred to this Magazine, Vol. X., No. 5, for May, 35.

rin, a silver coin, is 1s. 8d. British sterling, or about 40 cents United States

$39,000,000;) of which, 20,000,000 florins stand in the name of the abdicated king.

For most of the facts and figures embraced in the remaining pages of the present article, touching the commerce and resources of Java, we are indebted to P. L. SIMMONDS, Esq., the editor of the *London Colonial Magazine*.

Recent accounts from Sourabaya, state that in the highlands of Java, coffee, indigo, cinnamon and tea plantations, continue to be formed, and that the provinces lying on the east coast of Java have risen very much in importance from this extension. Many of the new harbors on the south and southeast coast of Java, such as Bassaruwan, Probolingo, Patjitang, Tjilajap, &c., have, within the last ten years, been increased from petty compongs or villages, to important trading towns; and the export of Java produce, from these harbors, has also been augmented very materially even within the last twelvemonth. The monopoly of the Dutch government, which compels the delivery into its warehouses of all produce destined for the European markets, and for which, it pays the producer scarcely more than one-third of the amount realized on the continent, has not prevented the formation of new plantations, as the owners (chiefly of the Caucasian race) continually become richer; and those who, two or three years back, may have laid out properties valued then at 5,000, 10,000 or 20,000 guilders, or more, can now sell or let them, for double or even treble the original cost, as, notwithstanding the monopoly, they yield an interest of 10 or 12 per cent.

However favorable may be the formation of new plantations, as far as the Batavian government and the landowners are concerned, it cannot be said, however, that the natives are benefited: for, in consequence of this colonization of Java, the number of pastures, rice and maize grounds, &c., has been materially diminished, whereby the necessaries of life have increased in price, during the last five or six years, from 200 to 300 per cent. Hence it arises, that in many of the provinces the native landowners are compelled by their chiefs to cultivate given portions with rice, maize and tobacco, and other of their grounds with indigo or sugar-canes. The native princes have an interest in promoting the growth of the staples received into the government magazines, as they receive a premium on them, according to the extent of their population and the quantity produced, the indigo-refiners and the proprietors of sugar-mills, (almost all Europeans,) being also instrumental in encouraging them.

A good idea can be formed of the increase in the cultivation of the government monopoly products, from the fact, that in the single province of Westbaglen, (about sixty square miles in extent,) eighty-six indigo-refineries have been established within seven or eight years.

That the increased cultivation and the newly-established mills, &c., give employment to a great number of persons, may be presumed; but, in Java, the poor native is compelled by his chief to work for the landowner at such low wages, that he is unable to support himself and family by his earnings. Poverty, therefore, prevails more than in earlier times; and while the enormous increase in the export trade of the island of Java, probably fills Europe with astonishment, cruel poverty advances with *giant* steps, the existing state of things being calculated to divide the *population* into two opposite classes—the very rich and the very poor;

› middling classes, in the meantime, disappearing gradually, more re.

n official statement of the exports of the island of Java, published ndian papers last received, it appears that the trade of this fruitful mising island has experienced a rapid increasing progression. ing over the minor articles of export, and taking the great staple ions of the island which constitute its export trade, we find that ion of indigo and its export, have increased during the last seven- ars, as follows:—

	Maunds.	Years.	Maunds.	Years.	Maunds.
.....	76	1831,.....	563	1837,.....	10,822
.....	126	1832,.....	2,213	1838,.....	9,778
.....	109	1833,.....	2,861	1839,.....	15,680
.....	310	1834,.....	3,310	1840,.....	27,946
.....	600	1835,.....	7,023	1841,.....	24,044
.....	480	1836,.....	5,365		

value of the last year's produce, is stated in round figures at 60 f Java rupees, at the rate of 250 rupees per maund. If this be rage price, and that it cannot be manufactured lower, Bengal has fear from Javanese competition.

exportation of coffee has been almost equally progressive; from › 1841, it being as follows:—

	Pekuls.	Years.	Pekuls.	Years.	Pekuls.
.....	277,622	1831,.....	299,086	1837,.....	684,947
.....	340,059	1832,.....	314,174	1838, ...	589,600
.....	399,558	1833,.....	360,166	1839,.....	757,476
.....	416,172	1834,.....	486,018	1840,.....	1,132,376
.....	281,662	1835,.....	466,371	1841,.....	961,467
.....	288,742	1836,.....	493,078		

1841, the estimated value is 288 lacks of Java rupees, or about 0,000; there having been exported, in addition to the coffee con- on the island, no less a quantity than 130,000,000 of pounds. The tion of rice is not noticed in the returns, till the year 1837, when nted to 30 lacks of rupees annually.

value of mace, nutmegs and cloves, exported in the year 1835, is ed at 1,183,000 Java rupees; and in the year 1841, at 2,183,000. gradual and uninterrupted increase in sugar, plainly evidences the ities and fertility of the island. The exportation being from 1825 , a period of seventeen years, as follows:—

	Pekuls.	Years.	Pekuls.	Years.	Pekuls.
.....	16,357	1831,.....	120,298	1837,.....	676,085
.....	19,795	1832,.....	245,872	1838,.....	734,980
.....	32,220	1833,.....	210,948	1839,.....	842,017
.....	25,870	1834,.....	372,885	1840,.....	1,013,877
.....	73,780	1835,.....	432,624	1841,.....	1,031,094
.....	108,640	1836,.....	539,514		

anca tin, the increase has been in the ratio of 500 per cent in the , though the prices of late years have considerably decreased. In he quantity exported was 9,118 pekuls, realizing 519,500 Java ru- In 1841, the exports were 48,000 pekuls, and the value little less lacks of rupees.

progress made *by the Dutch in* the Indian Archipelago, since the *tion of the island of Java,* at the general peace of 1815, is not less *le to their persevering* industry than it is of importance to the

other nations of Europe, with whom their productions come into competition.

We have yet no accurate return of the production of last year, but we have been furnished with the following report of the arrivals in the Dutch ports, which will give an approximation sufficiently close to draw a general conclusion. The coffee imported, amounted to 1,040,000 bags, or about 72,800 tons. The indigo sold by the trading company during the year, amounted to 10,500 chests, of the same dimensions as British East India from Calcutta. The sales of sugar amounted to 230,734 packages, or about 46,000 tons English weight, against about 45,000 in 1841 and 1842, respectively. These quantities apply to the sales made at Amsterdam and Rotterdam, and are exclusive of the quantities imported at other ports, and shipped directly from the colony to other parts of the world. It will further be observed, that the quantities sold within the year are not necessarily a test of the quantities produced in that year, although there is no doubt whatever but that the produce of 1843 exhibits an increase in all the great staples in an undiminished ratio.

The journals from the island of Ceylon, received in England to the 22d of February, 1844, were commenting on the expediency of abolishing the government spice monopoly, and calling attention to the progress making by the Dutch in cinnamon growing. In 1829, just four years before the opening of the trade, agents from Batavia, on the island of Java, took from Ceylon several persons acquainted with the cultivation of cinnamon, as well as a stock of seed, roots, &c. The Batavian government are now bestowing much attention upon cinnamon plantations, arising, no doubt, from some recent favorable sales made in Holland, where spice is getting into favor. At recent sales at Amsterdam, the following prices were obtained: for 1st sort, Java, 240 cents per kilogramme = 4*s.* per pound; for 2d sort, 150 cents = 2*s.* 6*d.* per pound; and for 3d sort, 70 cents = 1*s.* 2*d.* per pound. The quantities exported from Java, have been as follows:—

Years.	Bales.	Years.	Bales.	Years.	Bales.
1837,.....	40	1839,.....	164	1841,.....	764
1838,.....	60	1840,.....	312	1842,.....	1,245

The export duty on cinnamon is but 3*s.* 4*d.* per pekul, of 133 pounds, or about one English farthing per pound.

WEIGHTS, MEASURES, MONEY, ETC., OF JAVA.

Measures and Weights.—The ell = 27¾, and the foot = 12·36 imperial inches. The kanne, liquid measure = 91 imperial cubic inches, and 33 kannes = 13 English gallons, old measure, or 10 5-6ths imperial gallons; a leaguer of arrack, of 396 runds = 160 English wine gallons, or 133⅓ imperial gallons; a leaguer of wine is 360 runds.

The ordinary weights here, as well as throughout all the eastern possessions of the Dutch, are those of China; the pekul, however, instead of 133⅓ pounds avoirdupois, is reckoned at 125 Dutch troy pounds = 135 pounds 10 ounces avoirdupois, but commonly estimated at 136 pounds avoirdupois. Grain is sold in large quantities, by the coyang, of 3,300 *Dutch troy* pounds = 3,581 pounds avoirdupois; in small quantities, by *the timbang*, of 5 pekuls or 10 sacks. The kulack = 7½ catties, and the *last contains* 46 measures, each of 5 gantons.

Money.—Accounts are stated in Netherlands florins or guilders, each of 100 cents. The florin is a silver coin = 1*s.* 8*d.* sterling. In 1828, a bank was established at Batavia with a capital of 2,000,000, but it has lately suspended payment.

A treaty with Great Britain was concluded by Holland, in 1824, which contained provisions for regulating the intercourse between the subjects of the two governments in the east; but its terms are alleged to have been violated by the Dutch authorities in Java, as well in the higher rates they have since imposed on British imports, as in the custom-house valuations on which these have been founded.

ART. IV.—THE SEMAPHORIC AND MARINE TELEGRAPH FLAGS.

IT is a source of much satisfaction to the writer, to learn that the subject of *telegraphic communications* might be rendered of great utility to the common cause of humanity, especially in promoting and augmenting the means of giving additional security to lives and property, by again bringing the subject before the public. Every one hears and reads of news by the telegraph, from day to day, without ever considering, much less understanding anything of the principles of this mode of communicating intelligence. On account of its incalculable importance to the mercantile and trading interests, and above all, to the lives of our fellow-citizens, as well as for the simplicity and efficiency of the modern semaphoric system, I have thought it would be interesting to the readers of the Merchants' Magazine, to have some general knowledge, at least, of the construction of the semaphoric telegraph, its manner of operating, together with the objects embraced in conducting the establishment. "It must," says a learned lecturer, "be evident to the most common observer, that no means of conveying intelligence can ever be devised, that shall exceed, or even equal the rapidity of the telegraph: for, with the exception of the scarcely perceptible delay at each station, which is necessary in repeating a communication, its rapidity may be compared to that of light itself."

It would be almost superfluous to dwell on the incalculable benefit that would arise to our country, to the public revenue, to private convenience, and to public safety and security, by establishing a ramified telegraphic system, extending from the metropolis to the principal seaport towns and cities, and to the right and left of such lines of communication. Such an undertaking would be a sublime attempt at an approximation of time and space, and would be actually worthy of the high and enterprising character of our nation. Let it be recollected, that it is only a few years since that the establishment of the mail coach system, the projection of canals and railroads, together with the wonderful operation of steam engine machinery, were deemed visionary and almost impracticable. Man is a progressive being, and it is the press only that points out to him *what he ought to do;* and assuredly no one will oppose the march of mind and knowledge, and *of public instruction,* alone calculated to lead to perfection, *a maximum of which is wisely* denied on this side of time.

The telegraphic science is yet in its infancy in this country, very few

have turned their attention to it. In theory, it appears to have made great progress; but, in practice, little has been done. Under these circumstances, I should be deficient in that duty and respect I owe to the public, were I to omit placing its importance in a fair light, with a view of advancing its interests and superinducing its farther utility. The practical facility of the telegraphic art, is apparent to those only who have long studied it, and, like other things, it cannot be acquired intuitively.

The derivation of the word *telegraph*, appears to be from two Greek words, "*teele*," at a distance, and "*grapho*," to write. Its practice and use was not unknown to the ancients, and can be traced back to a very early period. The manner of communicating, is variously stated—by fire-signals, flags, shutters, arms fixed upon a post, displaying a variety of positions denoting the several letters of the alphabet. Later experience has produced a dictionary of numerals, of great extent and comprehensiveness, which is applied to commercial, political and other purposes. The history of the telegraph, so far as the ancients were acquainted with it, commences with Homer, Æchylus and Julian Africanus, all of whom make mention of fire-signals. All the Roman generals made use of telegraphs; and Brumois, in his account of the Greeks, gives an account of fire-signals used in war. The Chinese, Scythians and Gauls, and by almost all the barbarous nations, such signals were prevalent. Polybius gives the name of *tyrsia* to telegraphing, meaning that fires were the means made use of. He gives a full account of a telegraph invented by Cleoxenes Democlitus, and improved by himself. It was a mode of indicating letters of the Greek alphabet, by the display of torches. It would appear that each letter required two torch-signals, and that the communication was made between two stations only. It would have been much easier to have shortened the process by one-half of the time, and to have made it a day telegraph by substituting flags for torches.

We hear little more of telegraphs, till 1663, when the marquis of Worcester describes a species of telegraph, by a lettering plan. Above forty years after, Monsieur Amontons recommended the holding up of large letters to be viewed by telescopes, and communicated from station to station. Little more was done until the French invented *indicators*, which were semaphoric wings, which could be put into seven distinct positions, and from this originated a variety of descriptions of semaphors, all differing from each other in *principle of motion, degree of power and mechanical contrivance.* Guided by principles, laid down by Dr. Hook, in 1664, Dupuis, in France, invented a telegraph, improved by an ingenious monk, of the order of Citeaux, in 1781. Milli, Condorcet and Dr. Franklin, recommended it to the French government. Monsieur Chappe modified the principle of this invention, and introduced this telegraph, which, with others, was made use of during the revolutionary period.

There is no positive information that any methodized code of signals was made use of, in the fleets of the ancients. Such celebrated commanders as Themistocles and Colon, must have had their marine manœuvres by so obvious a mode as signals, made by flags or lights. That flags were made use of, is evident: for it is written, that if the ship which carried Ægeus to Crete returned in safety, a white flag was to be hoisted. *Polybius, in his* history of the Punic wars, makes indirect mention of *naval signals*; and the coins of the Greeks and Romans have on them flags *and pendants.* As the telegraphic art appears to have been practiced on

shore, the conclusion must follow that it was prevalent at sea. In the reign of Queen Elizabeth, we meet with the first regular set of signals, and sealed orders to the commanders of fleets, which were to be opened and acted upon when an ascertained latitude was attained. James II., when admiral, was the first who introduced a system of methodized signals, by means of which, divisions of fleets, as well as single ships, could be directed to act in any specific manner.

Previous to his time, the principles of co-operation, connected procedure and changes of position, were very imperfectly, if at all understood. When once an action commenced, every idea of regulating its farther progress was abandoned, the degree of naval science, then practiced, became nearly useless, and daring resolution and the physical power of grappling with the enemy, decided the fortune of the day. The duke of York, afterwards James II., first adopted a scientific formation of line and an order of battle, calculated for various situations in respect to the enemy, their number, and the state of the wind and weather. His fighting and sailing instructions, classed according to their various heads, were referred to by a specific signal, pointing to each movement and manœuvre in the class. This groundwork, resting upon unchangable general principles, though it may have received many additions, and may have been simplified by the *numerical order of signals*, remains to this day as the basis of evolutions, and the germ from which has sprung the British naval code.

Le P. Hote, in his "*Art des Armes Navales*," printed at Lyons, in 1827, has given a system of signals with sails, varying-flags and guns, fired in slow and quick time at night. Some of his signals were of a clumsy description, such as suspending a water-cask from the yard-arm to indicate want of water, and a large *hatchet* to show a want of wood or fuel. To express a numeral, he recommends hoisting or lowering a flag, till the number meant was counted out.

The most essential improvement in naval signals, has arisen from the invention and application of the *numerical order*. This simple, but luminous improvement, is generally ascribed to Monsieur de la Bourdonnais, who, it is said, was the original inventor of the method of signalizing by notation. Dr. Hook, who was the inventor of the land telegraph, recommended a numerical plan to the Royal Society of London, but it was Monsieur de la Bourdonnais who brought the plan to considerable perfection. In the British navy, it has been carried to nearly its acme, by improvements introduced by different admirals, commodores and men of science.

I have already stated that telegraphing sentences, and consequently words, were known to the ancients. It appears from the works already quoted, that the idea originated in France long before it was adopted in England. It is the opinion of the best informed naval characters in this country, that our naval code of signals is deficient in comprehensibility, arrangement and method, and that a board of tactics, formed of the most scientific officers in the service, ought to be employed to draw up a complete system. Such a procedure, established on the *numerical system*, would doubtless be scientific and unexceptionable. The multiplicity of flags, *many of which burdens the* memory, and amidst the hurry, smoke *and confusion, incident to action,* creates a constant liability to errors and *mistakes. The numerical system* of notation was happily invented to ob-

viate all these difficulties, by the principle of simplification, which is its distinguishing characteristic.

Sensible of the operose and creeping tediousness of the l-e-t-t-e-r-i-n-g plan, I cannot but strongly urge its inefficiency and want of science, and as it is generally abolished, I may add that the experience of twenty-five years has abundantly justified the propriety of the measure, and all who understand this interesting science must be averse to the practice of combinations as used in the lettering plan. I have invariably established a rule, that every telegraph station is to keep up their own communicating signal till the next station has been seen to take it up accurately, and until the preceding one has dropped it. But when every combination is, as it were, a new study, a person might, under such a personal exertion of thought of things differing but little, be apt not to remember precisely the combination even on his own telegraph. By a constant, close and strained attention, these errors and mistakes may not be so liable to happen, but this necessary attention must unavoidably occasion the taking up of a great deal of time at every station along an extensive line. Besides all this, much time is comparatively lost in reading off the combination at each station, on the part of the observer at the telescope, who must frequently be obliged to repeat, what must be nearly new to him and to those working the telegraph. Thus it appears that, so far from accelerating communication by the use of complicated and troublesome combinations, it may be proved experimentally, that it is a mode, not only more tedious, but much more liable to error and uncertainty than any other mode, independent of increasing the expense in enlarging the telegraph, and obscuring its visibility of whatever description it may be. The numerical plan, on the contrary, is so simple and familiar, that mistake is next to impossible. The persons employed, have only to recollect the movements of the arms indicating the numerals, and the giving the figures; they are set up in an instant, without hesitation or doubt.

Among the numerous plans of telegraphs which have been devised, we find that the *shutter telegraph* originated in Sweden; it consisted of nine boards, and was found to succeed remarkably well for low situations, where a back horizon could not be obtained. This shutter telegraph was introduced by Lord George Murray, in 1793, and simplified by the use of six boards or shutters only. It was used at the admiralty, until 1816, and was hung in a frame and turned by pulleys connected with cranks below, so that they may present either their whole surface or only an edge to view. It was capable of making sixty-three signals, and practiced upon the lettering plan. In 1816, Sir Home Popham, of the British navy, invented what he called the semaphore telegraph, which was immediately adopted by the board of admiralty, and continues in use to the present time. It consists of an upright post or mast, with *two arms only*, moving vertically on their respective centres, one at the top of the mast, and the other half way down, each arm being made to perform an entire revolution, and being turned with facility and dispatch so as to take any position that may be required, differing, however, from each other in principle of motion, degrees of power and mechanical contrivance; these arms expressed letters or numerals, according to the system agreed on.

Among the numerous plans of telegraphs, which have been devised, *we find none* exceeds in simplicity, or excels in greater rapidity, than the *semaphoric* telegraph. This system is one of the greatest improvements

of modern times. We have heretofore stated, that the process of making communication was by spelling the words, each sign denoting a letter of the alphabet; but modern ingenuity has introduced dictionaries or vocabularies, by which words, phrases and sentences, can be communicated at once, by being arranged alphabetically, and having opposite to each word or sentence, a corresponding numerical affixed thereto. This manner of operation is derived from the French, and includes three distinct principles. The first is the projection of an arm from a post, either from the top or the side. The second is the construction or mechanical contrivance, by means of which the numerals are formed. The third comprehends the limits of power, furnished by the single and conjoined action of the wings and arms.

The semaphoric telegraph is very simple in its construction and movements, as well as being *economical in its cost.* It consists of an upright post or mast fifty to sixty feet in height, having two movable arms composed of boards, six to ten feet in length, and one to one and a half in breadth, one of them being one-third from the top, the other, one-third from the bottom, by one end on a pivot, in such a manner that, when the boards are at rest, they hang perpendicularly against the mast, so as not to be seen at a distance, but when pulled out on either side by chains attached to them, they can be seen by glasses of the power of forty to fifty, from either station between which they are located, from ten to thirteen miles, according to their situation.

Above the two arms or boards, at the top of the mast, is a smaller arm or indicator. Each of the arms revolves into, and are made to rest in six positions, three on each side of the post, at the point which would designate respectively the several numerals from one to six, so that the three arms can take eighteen positions, and, by the principle of permutation, can express any number from a unit to hundreds of thousands.

Connected with the semaphoric telegraph, is a dictionary or telegraph vocabulary, containing sets of numerals arranged in alphabetical order, with the meaning, with words, phrases and sentences, exactly upon the principle of a dictionary of any language. The telegraph dictionary differs only from any other, in having a series of words, phrases and sentences, under each letter of the alphabet, with the meaning of the numbers affixed to them. Just as in a French dictionary, for example, the French word would be put first, and then the English meaning by its side. The arms of the telegraph being placed in certain positions, denote particular numbers; the observer, then seeing the position of the arms, looks into his telegraph dictionary for the number denoted by them, and by the side of that number, he finds the word signified by it.

This is a general view of the principle of the invention. This numerical dictionary or telegraph vocabulary, embraces, as far as can be anticipated by experience, all the questions and answers which are likely to occur upon every subject. It contains also a list of numerals designating the names of vessels, principal countries, ports, places, towns, cities, headlands, capes, harbors, besides over two thousand vessels designating telegraph numbers, all of whom have adopted this semaphoric system of conversation, together with all the public vessels of the United States and the revenue *cutters and steamers,* which saves the trouble of spelling *their names letter by letter, as must* be the case with all those vessels who *have not adopted the semaphoric* system. The semaphoric signal book,

consists of four parts. The first part is familiarly known by the name of *the Marine Telegraph Signal Book;* when this is used, it is designated with the indicator by the numbers denoting 6–4, which may be termed the numerical name of that part of the book. A brief exemplification will make this intelligible. When the observer at one station, wishes to communicate with the other, he places the indicator in a perpendicular position, in which it is kept during the whole time of the communication, except when changed to designate one of the books, as explained hereafter.

Let it be supposed that the conductor of one of the stations should wish to converse, or inquire of the other, whether he had anything to communicate? tl is question will be found in the first part. Now, before asking the question, the observer puts the indicator first in position No. 6, and then changes it to No. 4, which is noted down upon a slate or paper thus, 6–4. The person inquired of, then knows he is to look into that book for the matter in question. The first observer then has recourse to the two arms of his telegraph, with which he makes the signals, denoting the numerals, 4–3–2–4; this makes the entire number 4324, against which number in the book, the person at the other station finds this question—"*Have you anything to communicate?*" Being thus possessed of the question, he prepares to answer it either *yes* or *no*, which is to be found in the same part of the book. He also, in the first place, by means of his indicator, gives the numbers 6–4 to denote that book, and then immediately answers by the sign for the No. 4, which means "*yes*," or No. 1, which means "*no.*"

The second part is a very copious vocabulary. It embraces extensive and voluminous subjects of every description, arranged alphabetically. This second part is designated by the indicator, not by any one fixed and invariable number, but by several combinations of numbers, each of which at once directs the observer to a particular subdivision of the alphabet, where will be found the principal or important word, phrase or sentence. For instance, suppose the indicator should give the numbers 1–5, now, as the number does not denote the first part, or marine telegraph, which is 6–4, it follows that the observer is to look into the telegraph vocabulary. In this, it will accordingly be found that the numbers 1–5 denote the subdivision or letter D, under the principal word or subject, matter of inquiry will be seen. After this, if the following numbers were given by the arms of the telegraph, 2–6–4, "*Is in great distress and requires immediate assistance,*" will be indicated.

The third part contains the telegraph numbers of Marryat's code of signals, as adopted by the governments of England and France, for the use of the maritime commerce of these respective countries; the same system is used at Lloyd's coffee-house, London, and at the Holyhead and Liverpool telegraph stations. It embraces above twelve thousand designating telegraph numbers, which, together with two thousand numbers of the semaphoric system for American vessels, furnishes a signal book containing the names of nearly fourteen thousand sail of vessels.

An essential and highly important auxiliary improvement, is attached to the semaphoric system, by means of flags, called *the marine telegraph; their use* rests upon the same principle as that of the semaphoric land *telegraph;* they are six in number only, and correspond to the six positions of the arms of the land telegraph, denoting the numerals 1, 2, 3, 4,

5, 6. They are each blue and white, and all of the same size, with the duplicate numbers of each flag. To these is added a conversation flag, which, like the indicator of the land telegraph, shows that the vessel making the signal wishes to converse. Many thousand changes can be made, designating the words, phrases and sentences, in the book above-mentioned. By such means, vessels at sea can communicate to each other, even at the distance of ten miles, and when they approach the coast can hold communication with the semaphoric land telegraph.

The very extended and increasing commerce of the United States, in continual intercourse with each other, as well as with the whole commercial world, should possess every facility of communication that can be devised for the purpose of diffusing information, and promoting the safety and comfort of those engaged in carrying it on.

From the illustrations given of the uses and the extreme facility of communicating by telegraphs, an opinion may be formed of how much importance a line of telegraph communications upon our railroads, would tend to prevent the frequent collisions which take place, thereby saving a very great expense to the proprietors, and preventing the loss of life to individuals.

The application of the art to other subjects, will naturally follow the progress of those rapid improvements which are the characteristics of the present age. We are all aware what a change has taken place in the transmission of intelligence relating to business, within a few years past; an additional impulse has rendered it necessary to add new energy to our means of communication. If there are now essential advantages to business, in obtaining intelligence by expresses, at the rate of ten and twelve miles per hour, any one must perceive that there must be a proportionate benefit, when information by telegraph can be transmitted throughout the country, at the rate of *ten miles per minute*. The rapidity of the public mail is not sufficient, in many instances, to supply the demands of a business community. Expresses, at an enormous expense, are employed to convey intelligence from the seat of government to the principal cities. When we witness the extraordinary resources of this growing country—when we observe the wonderful results of an intelligent and active population, incessantly occupied in developing their powers and resources, and stimulated by the circumstances in which they are placed, to greater and more intense exertion than the same number of people have probably ever been—when we see, too, that all ordinary calculations, founded upon the precedents of other nations, fall short of what is here actually accomplished—when we witness all this, we cannot believe that it is being too sanguine to expect the establishment of a line of telegraphs throughout the Union.

In conclusion, we have directed our attention to the utility of *telegraph communication*, as applied to the practical concerns of the community, and, we may add, that it is of the highest importance, because it immediately concerns, not only the preservation of property, but of human lives.

GRAPHO.

Art. V.—MUTUAL LIFE INSURANCE.*

The result of the experience of the Mutual Life Insurance Company, of New York, and the New England Mutual Life Insurance Company, in Boston, shows that many prudent people in the community are aware that the insurance of life is, in many cases, quite as important as the insurance of a building, ship, cargo or other property, in others. It has been well remarked,† if the inquiry were made in each case, it is probable that one man out of every four or five, would find that he can, by mutual insurance for his whole life, protect his family and the persons dependent upon him, against the disastrous effects of his premature decease, without any pecuniary sacrifice in so doing: for, whatever he pays, his family will be entitled to receive back again in due proportion; that is, with great addition, if he survive but a short time, and proportional deduction, in case of his surviving beyond expectation. This being so, a person in good health, of a sound life, insurable at the lowest rate of premium, if he reflect on the subject, will feel some compunction if he neglect such provision against the event of his premature decease; and on the other hand, if he make the provision, the satisfaction of his having done so is worth half of the premium, and has, in part, a tendency to promote his longevity. The statistics of life insurance show that it enhances the expectation of life.

As people shall become acquainted with the subject, the matter of life insurance will pretty soon be as familiar as that of property now is. Information respecting it, is rapidly spreading, by means of the operation of the life offices now in operation.

The business of the Mutual Life Insurance Company, of New York, from the commencement of its operations, 1st of February, 1843, to the 31st of August, 1844, (nineteen months,) has been as follows:—

Number of policies,.....		796
Of which, were for life,.....	419	
" for seven years,.....	282	
" for different periods,.....	95	
Total policies for nineteen months,....	796	

The number of policies issued by this company, to September 1st, 1844, was, as above stated, 796; of which were to merchants, clerks and agents, 396; brokers, 37; clergymen, 30; physicians, 26; lawyers, 46; manufacturers, 25; mechanics, 36; farmers, 14; officers of incorporated companies, 34; officers, army and navy, 16; professors in colleges and students, 26; other pursuits, 110.

The amount of premiums received,.....	$85,873 80
Received for policies,.....	592 00
" sea risks,.....	808 50
" interest on bonds, mortgages and stocks,....	1,989 87
Total amount received by the comyany,.....	$89,264 17

* *For an elaborate article on Life Insurance in the United States, &c., see Merchants' Magazine for February, 1843, Vol. VIII., No. 2, pp. 109 to 131, and continued in same Vol., No. 3, for March, pp. 205 to 240.*

† *Nathan Hale, Esq., editor of the Boston Daily Advertiser.*

The company, so far, has sustained, by the death of two persons whose lives were insured, a loss of only $7,000. The amount of premiums on original policies, received during the months of July and August, 1844, was *nine thousand four hundred and fifty-eight dollars, seventy-three cents*, which would give an annual increase to the capital of the company, of $56,752 38. The business of this company must, from the growing interest in the subject among all classes, and the high character of the gentlemen composing the board of trustees, continue, as it has from the commencement, to steadily augment.

The business of the New England Mutual Life Insurance Company, during the first six months of its operation, beginning February 1st, and ending July 31st, has been as follows, viz :—

Number of policies,.....	205
Amount insured,.....	$573,180 00
Premiums and deposits,.....	14,950 88

The business continued at the same rate in the month of August, and it has from the beginning been singularly regular and steady, indicating its firm and substantial character, and its tendency to spread and diffuse itself in the community; and it will do so more rapidly as its benefits shall be developed, and become palpably apparent on the occurrences of losses. As yet, no loss has occurred to the New England company.

We find in a late number of Chambers' Edinburgh Journal, a work conducted with signal ability, and characterized for its liberal and impartial view of topics connected with the general progress of man, some so well-timed remarks on the comparative merits of the two modes of insurance—"the mutual, and the proprietary" or stock company—which now contend for notice, that we are induced to embrace them in the present paper. After a careful examination of the two plans, with some benefit from practical experience, the writer declares his conviction that the mutual system is the only one which the public at large are concerned to support. He says :—

"The proprietary system, originating only by favor of the darkness in which the subject was at first buried, could only, it appears to us, have since been supported by the efforts of interested individuals. It is, perhaps, to be considered by mercantile men as a legitimate mode of making money; but, examined more rigidly, and by persons like ourselves, perfectly disinterested, it seems by no means a blameless one. To illustrate this, let us see how a life insurance company generally proceeds. A set of speculators start it with a large apparition of capital, of which only a few thousand pounds need be paid up. By means of a handsome looking office, incessant advertising and active managers and agents, business is obtained. After a few years, this has generally increased considerably, and large dividends begin to be made amongst the shareholders. In one instance, under our immediate notice, £10,000 of paid up capital now stands, after seventeen years' business, at the value of £70,000 in the stock market, being £600 per cent of premium. What is it that has thus so much increased its value? Only those surplusages of payment, by the public, which, in a mutual office, would all come back to the insured. Generally, it is to be remarked, proprietary offices, besides their usual *scales of rates, where, as in* death's own list, there is no return, have a *scale where the payments* are somewhat higher, and the insured are to

have periodical bonuses as in the mutual system; a concession much like the celebrated one which vice is said to pay to virtue. But here, the benefits sink far below what are to be usually obtained from a respectable mutual office; as they well may, seeing that the company looks for a profit to itself, which is just so much abstracted from the pockets of the insured without any equivalent. Were we to draw out tables contrasting the sums which individuals will realize in a course of years under the mutual system, with those which the same payments will obtain under the proprietary or trading system, even where shares of 'profits' are professedly divided among the insured, our readers would be startled at the difference of results. It would appear almost incomprehensible that the proprietary system should have contrived to exist so long, when a rival plan, free from all selfish principle, and securing to the public the utmost possible advantages, was daily contending with it for public favor. This, however, is no real mystery, when we consider the ignorance of most persons on the subject of life insurance, and what a powerful interest is concerned in maintaining the repute of the proprietary system, and bringing business to its bureaux.

"The leading pretext of the proprietary system is, that the subscribed capital affords a guarantee or security for the payment of claims which the mutual system lacks, and that the insured is thus compensated in safety for what he wants in money. But the hollowness of this pleading is seen in a moment, when we consider that a combination of insurers, each paying fully what science says is necessary to make good their mutual engagements, is a transaction free from all risk, in the ordinary sense of the word, and only can fail in the event of a change in the laws of nature, or such an alteration in the condition of the country (affecting the value of money) as no kind of security would gain-stand. Attempts have been made to liken the case of a life insurance company to a bank of deposit, and to make out from that analogy that a stock is necessary for the security of the insurers. But the cases are totally diverse, seeing that the insurance company has not, like a bank, to trade with its deposits, but only to lay them out to the best advantage in permanent investments, and thus hold them, till they fall, in the due course of time, to be returned. A bank which appropriated to itself half the ordinary rate of interest for deposits, on the pretence of its having a few thousand pounds of stock to afford a security, would be in strict analogy, but no other. In fact, the capital is a mere stalking-horse, there is no instance of its ever being called into requisition. Were such an instance to occur, it would probably prove a mere trifle in comparison with the extent of the obligations. We may go farther, and say that this capital is not only unnecessary, in consequence of the unavoidable formation of large funds from the mere payments of the insured, but, if on a large scale, it would be a positive disadvantage, as, if there is any real difficulty in the conducting of life insurance business, it is in the disposal of the funds. Capital for life insurance, can, at the most, only be needed at first, while the accumulated premiums of the insured are of slender amount; but admitting that it is ever so needed, it almost immediately becomes superfluous, and should be therefore withdrawn. There is an instance of an office, commenced on *the proprietary* system, with an arrangement for the gradual buying up of *the shareholders*, which is now effected, so that the office, after twenty *years' existence*, has made a transition to the mutual system. This is so

ar laudable, only there was no need for the shareholders drawing profits or so long as twenty years, or for their being allowed at last to get double the original price of their shares. Beyond a very short time, at the most, the capital of a life insurance company, as far as it is a reality at all, only serves—and this purpose it serves very well—to justify a small set of men in appropriating to themselves funds properly due to others. As might be expected, the means taken for obtaining business by the proprietary offices, is not, in general, of a very scrupulous nature. They make extensive use of the system of commission, that is, large and tempting allowances to solicitors and others, to induce them to bring their friends or clients to these instead of any other offices. Some men have almost an income secured to them, by the allowances they are entitled to in consequence of having taken a few customers to some of the more liberal class of offices, such allowances being neither more nor less than a bribe to induce a man of business to betray the interests of those who confide in him. Such a use of funds, however reprehensible it may be, on moral grounds, is justified on pecuniary considerations to the shareholders, if it only leaves themselves a profit, seeing that they have no other object to look to. Very different is the case of the mutual offices, where money so employed would be a subtraction from funds properly belonging to the whole circle of the insured.

"In fine, the system of mutual insurance, pure and undefiled, is that which the public should, for its own sake, and partly for the sake of morality, also, support. It is an institution contemplating unmixed good to mankind, and where no grosser interests than those of a few officials, can possibly be concerned. Conducted on a large scale, and upon a proper footing, it involves no risk; and, at the same time, from the system of divisions of surplus, the charges must be held as reduced to a perfect square with the necessities of the case, excepting only the expenses of management. Contrasted with this, the proprietary system cannot for a moment be defended—a business pretending to incur risks, and drawing all the profits which can only be due where risks are real—a business which can only thrive in the proportion in which it puts on imposing appearances."

We are indebted to Professor J. W. Wright, of New York, for the following table. It exhibits the expected duration of life at every age of man's existence, and is the result of long experience and minute observations on life insurance establishments, and may be relied on for general accuracy. The exceptions to its assumptions are found to be so trivial as to supersede the exercise of much consideration as to calculations. Its value to life insurance companies, and those connected in speculations of this character is important.

EXPLANATION OF THE TABLE ON THE FOLLOWING PAGE.

A person who has arrived at the *age* of 40, is *expected* to live 27·61–100 in addition; thus bringing his probable age to 67 and the sixty-one one hundredth parts of a year. See 40, in the column of *Age*, &c.

Age.	Expected.	Age.	Expected.	Age.	Expected.	Age.	Expected.
0	38.72	26	37.14	52	19.68	78	6.12
1	44.68	27	36.41	53	18.97	79	5.80
2	47.55	28	35.69	54	18.28	80	5.51
3	49.82	29	35.00	55	17.58	81	5.21
4	50.76	30	34.34	56	16.89	82	4.93
5	51.25	31	33.68	57	16.21	83	4.65
6	51.17	32	33.03	58	15.55	84	4.39
7	50.80	33	32.36	59	14.92	85	4.12
8	50.24	34	31.68	60	14.34	86	3.90
9	49.57	35	31.00	61	13.82	87	3.71
10	48.82	36	30.32	62	13.31	88	3.59
11	48.04	37	29.64	63	12.81	89	3.47
12	47.27	38	28.96	64	12.30	90	3.28
13	46.51	39	28.28	65	11.79	91	3.26
14	45.75	40	27.61	66	11.27	92	3.37
15	45.00	41	26.97	67	10.75	93	3.48
16	44.27	42	26.34	68	10.23	94	3.50
17	43.57	43	25.71	69	9.70	95	3.53
18	42.87	44	25.09	70	9.18	96	3.46
19	42.17	45	24.46	71	8.65	97	3.28
20	41.66	46	23.82	72	8.16	98	3.07
21	40.75	47	23.17	73	7.72	99	2.77
22	40.04	48	22.50	74	7.33	100	2.28
23	39.31	49	21.81	75	7.01	101	1.79
24	38.59	50	21.11	76	6.69	102	1.30
25	37.86	51	20.39	77	6.40	103	0.83

Art. VI.—COMMERCIAL LEGISLATION.

AMERICAN SEAMEN IN FOREIGN PORTS.

The report and bill of the Hon. R. C. Winthrop, from the committee on commerce, laid before Congress, May 16th, 1844, has just been printed; and as it relates to matters of importance affecting the merchant service of the United States, we proceed to lay before our readers a full synopsis of the report and bill, which will, we trust, be acted on at the next session of Congress, as also a bill reported at the last session for the remodelling of the consular system of the United States.

On the 3d of January, 1844, a resolution was adopted by the House of Representatives, authorizing the committee on commerce to inquire into the expediency of modifying the act concerning consuls, so as to exempt from any contribution to the fund for the relief of American seamen in foreign ports, the owners or masters of vessels which may have been sold in foreign ports, in consequence of injuries resulting from the perils of the sea, and to provide greater securities for the execution of the wills of American citizens dying abroad.

On the 10th of January, additional resolutions were adopted, instructing the same committee to inquire, 1st, into the cause of the recent increase in the number of desertions and discharges of American seamen; whether the laws passed for their relief, have been executed or not; and especially, whether the act of the 28th of February, 1803, which requires the payment of three months extra wages in certain cases, has been complied with, and if not, to inquire into the expediency of imposing a penalty *on the* master of the vessel for his refusal or neglect to pay said wages *to the consul*; and also of imposing a penalty on the consul for his refusal

or neglect to account for the same, or of requiring said wages to be paid, in the first instance, to collectors, and by them accounted to the treasury, to constitute a fund for the relief and protection of American seamen. The 2d resolution required the committee to inquire into the expediency of amending the act of 1790, so that the forfeiture of a seaman's wages and effects for desertion, should accrue to the United States and not to the owner of the vessel, to be applied in aid of the fund alluded to in the 1st resolution.

The committee, after investigating the subjects referred to them, in these resolutions, proceed, accordingly, to submit their views, as follows:

The policy of protecting American seamen, and of providing against their being left in foreign ports, or being seized by foreign powers, or being in any way lost to the service of their own country, will not be questioned in any quarter. So important is this policy, in every view, both of commercial independence and of national defence, that no amount of expenditure which might be found necessary to maintain it, would be grudged by the government or the people. It is proper, however, that, in reference to all matters involving appropriations of public money, a wise economy should be observed, and a strict accountability enforced; and the committee were clearly of opinion that, in relation to the matters referred to them, something of stricter accountability, if not of greater economy, would be both expedient and practicable.

By the act of the 28th of February, 1803, it is provided that the master of every vessel clearing for a foreign port shall enter into bond in the sum of $400 for the production of his crew at the first port at which he shall arrive on his return to the United States; but that such bond shall not be forfeited on account of the master not producing any one or more of said crew who may have been discharged in a foreign country with the consent of the consul, vice-consul, or commercial agent of the United States there residing, nor on account of any one or more of the crew dying or absconding, or being forcibly impressed into other service.

By the same act, it is further provided, that whenever a vessel belonging to a citizen of the United States shall be sold in a foreign country, and her company discharged—or when a mariner, a citizen of the United States, shall with his own consent be discharged in a foreign country, the master shall pay to the consul or agent, for every mariner so discharged, three months' pay over and above the wages which may then be due him; two-thirds thereof to be paid by such consul or agent to the person so discharged, upon his engagement on board of any vessel to return to the United States, and the remaining third to be retained for creating a fund for the payment of the passage of mariners, citizens of the United States, who may be desirous of returning to the United States, and for the maintenance of American seamen who may be destitute, and may be in such foreign port.

By the same act, it is still further provided, that the consuls, vice-consuls and commercial agents of the United States, shall, from time to time, provide for the mariners of the United States who may be found destitute within their districts respectively, sufficient subsistence, and passage to some port in the United States, in the most reasonable manner, at the expense of the United States.

This act of 1803, remained unaltered until 1840. It will be perceived that, *in reference to the exaction* of the three months' extra pay, one-third

of which was to be retained for creating a fund for the relief of American seamen in foreign ports, it gave no discretion to the consul or commercial agent. In all cases of discharge to which the provisions of the act were construed to apply, the consuls and other agents had no alternative to the obligation of requring the payment of the three months' additional wages.

By an act of the 20th of July, 1840, this feature of the act of 1803, was changed, and the consuls and commercial agents of the United States were invested with a very wide discretion over the subject. It is provided by this act, that any such consul or commercial agent may, upon the application of both the master and any mariner of the vessel under his command, discharge such mariner *if he thinks it expedient*, without requiring the payment of three months' wages, under the provisions of the act of 1803, or any other sum of money.

The grounds upon which this provision was recommended, are briefly stated in the report by which the act was introduced, as follows: "The law of 1803, which secures to seamen three months' additional pay, if discharged in foreign ports, has been found, in practical operation, oftentimes to prove injurious to seamen, while it was designed for their benefit. It often occurs that, in the course of regular business, it becomes expedient to discharge the men in a foreign port, and they sail with that knowledge and understanding—as where the vessel is sold, or for any cause is to lie long in port. The execution, under these circumstances, becomes very onerous; and the consequence is, that the men desert by agreement, to enable the master to avoid the penalty; and several consuls, whose duty it has been to execute this law, are of opinion that it ought to be modified; and the committee, upon the evidence before them, are satisfied that this may be done with advantage to all parties, as well as to good morals."

The act of 1840, undoubtedly contains many valuable provisions in relation to the shipment and discharge of seamen, and the duties of consuls; and the committee concur in the opinion that the best interests, as well of mariners and merchants as of the government, required some relaxation of the strict requisitions of the act of 1803. But the unlimited discretion which is given to consuls and commercial agents, in the clause which has been cited, seems to have operated unfortunately for all concerned. If our consular establishment were organized upon a more independent system; if the officers composing it were required to be disconnected entirely with commercial operations; if they were selected exclusively from the citizens of our own country; if they were remunerated by established salaries, and removed from the possibility of all interested connection with shipmasters and shipowners, such a discretion might more safely be intrusted to them.

One of the practical operations of the law, as it now stands, has been represented to the committee as follows: A seaman wishes to be discharged in a foreign port, on account of sickness, or for any other sufficient cause. The master says, "Very well; I will discharge you, but will not pay the three months' extra wages." The seaman is obliged to assent to this condition, or abandon his application. They go before the consul, accordingly, under the section of the act of 1840, and make the *joint application* which is required. The consul may refuse, if he does *not think* the discharge *expedient*. But there are two considerations *which may* influence his notions of expediency: the first, that the master

will refuse to discharge on any other terms; the second, that his own interest is, in gratifying masters and owners, for whom he is usually the consignee.

The committee are of opinion that there are two very different considerations which should control the decision of this question of expediency; the one, the interest of the mariner, and the other, the interest of the government. Of the three months' extra wages, two-thirds are designed for the benefit of the seaman discharged, and one-third for the benefit of the government fund. There may be cases in which a discharge may be so manifestly for the advantage of the seaman, that his portion of the extra wages may reasonably and justly be remitted to the master; while, at the same time, the contribution to the fund may no less reasonably or justly be required. Other cases may be conceived, in which the government may seem called on to assent to the remission of its own share of the charge, but without compromising the claim of the discharged mariner. And, undoubtedly, there are circumstances (as when vessels are stranded or condemned, or compelled to break up their voyage, owing to the casualties of the sea,) in which no extra payment should be demanded.

The committee are satisfied that the law of 1840 requires modification. The *expediency* which is to authorise our consuls and commercial agents, to assent to the unconditional discharge of American seamen in foreign ports, requires some degree of definition and limitation. Such a modification is demanded by a consideration, not only of the influences by which a consul is liable to be swayed in the exercise of so wide a discretion, but of the importance of making the law more certain and uniform in its operation. There are now about 220 consuls and consular agents, in the service of the United States. Each one of them, is, of course, entitled to his own opinion on these questions of expediency, and the law is one thing at Havre and another at Liverpool.

There is reason to believe that, in some ports, the provision of the law of 1803 is regarded as virtually repealed by that of 1840; and that discharges are granted, without any contribution either to the mariner or to the government. The result of this construction is beginning to manifest itself in the increasing appropriations annually required for supplying the deficiency in the relief fund. By the following table from the register's office, it appears that the average amount appropriated for this purpose, during seven years, from 1834 to 1840, was about $36,500; and that the appropriation never exceeded the sum of $43,055 99. Since the passage of the act of 1840, the appropriations have averaged nearly $60,000, and in the year 1843, amounted to more than $70,000.

It is not desirable, perhaps, say the committee, to do away altogether with the discretionary authority of our consular agents, in relation to this subject; but the principles on which it is to be exercised should be laid down, and some system of accountability devised, by which it may be seen how far those principles have been observed.

With these views, the committee on commerce, propose the provisions contained in the first six sections of the bill, a synopsis of which we here annex.

The bill *provides*—

1. That no consul, vice-consul, or commercial agent of the United States, *shall discharge any mariner in a foreign port,* without requiring the payment of the two months'

wages to which said mariner is entitled, under the provisions of the act of February 28th, 1803, unless, upon due investigation into the circumstances under which the master and mariner have jointly applied for such discharge, and on a separate examination of such mariner, the consul, vice-consul, or commercial agent, shall be satisfied that it is for the interest and welfare of such mariner to be so discharged; nor shall any consul, vice-consul, or commercial agent, discharge any mariner as aforesaid, without requiring the full amount of three months' wages, as provided by the above-named act, unless under such circumstances as will, in his judgment, secure the United States from all liability to expense on account of such mariner: *Provided, only*, That in the cases of stranded vessels, or vessels condemned as unfit for service, no payment of extra wages shall be required.

2. That every consul, vice-consul, and commercial agent of the United States, shall keep a detailed list of all mariners discharged by them, respectively, specifying their names, and the names of the vessels from which they were discharged, and the payments (if any) which were required on the discharge of each, and the sums of money (if any) which were afterwards advanced on account of each, and shall make official returns of said lists half-yearly, to the treasury department.

3. That every consul, vice-consul, and commercial agent of the United States, shall make an official entry of every discharge which they shall grant, respectively, on the list of the crew and shipping articles of the vessel from which such discharge shall be made, specifying the payment (if any) which has been required in each case; and if they shall have remitted the payment of the two months' wages to which the mariner is entitled, they shall also certify, on said shipping list and articles, that they have allowed the remission upon the joint application of the master and mariner therefor, after a separate examination of the mariner, after a due investigation of all the circumstances, and after being satisfied that the discharge so allowed, without said payment, is for the interest and welfare of the mariner; and if they shall have remitted the payment of the one month's wages to which the United States is entitled, they shall certify that they have allowed the remission, after a due investigation of all the circumstances, and upon being satisfied that they are such as will, in their judgment, secure the United States from all liability to expense on account of such mariner; and a copy of all such entries and certificates shall be annually transmitted to the treasury department, by the proper officer of the customs in the several ports of the United States.

4. That if any consul, vice-consul, or commercial agent of the United States, upon discharging a mariner without requiring the payment of the one month's wages to which the United States is entitled, shall neglect to certify, in the manner required in such case by the third section of this act, he shall be accountable to the treasury department for the sum so remitted. And in any action brought by a mariner to recover the extra wages to which he is entitled, under the act of February 28th, 1803, the defence that the payment of such wages was duly remitted, shall not be sustained without the production of the certificate in such case required by this act; or, when its non-production is accounted for, by the production of a certified copy thereof; and the truth of the facts certified to, and the propriety of the remission, shall be still open to investigation.

5. That if, upon the application of any mariner, it shall appear to the consul, vice-consul, or commercial agent, that he is entitled to his discharge under any act of Congress, or according to the general principles of the maritime law, as recognized in the United States, he shall discharge such mariner, and shall require of the master the payment of three months' wages, as provided in the act of February 28th, 1803, and shall not remit the same, nor any part thereof, except in the cases mentioned in the proviso of the ninth clause of the first section of the act of July 20th, 1840, and in the proviso of the first section of this act.

6. That every consul, vice-consul, and commercial agent, for any neglect to perform the duties enjoined upon him by this act, shall be liable to any injured person for all damage occasioned thereby; and for any violation of the provisions of the first and fifth sections of this act, shall also be liable to indictment, and to a penalty, in the manner provided by the eighteenth clause of the first section of the act of July 20th, 1840.

7. That the act of April 14th, 1792, concerning consuls, &c., is hereby so amended, that if any American citizen dying abroad shall, by will, or any other writing, leave special directions for the management and settlement, by the consul, of the personal or other property which he may die possessed of in the country where he may die, it shall be the duty of the consul strictly to observe the directions so given by the deceased. Or, if such citizen, so dying, shall, by will, or any other writing, have appointed any other person than the consul to take charge of and settle his affairs, in that case it shall be the duty of the consul, when and so often as required by the so appointed agent or trustee of the deceased,

ive his official aid in whatever way may be necessary to facilitate the operations of
ı trustee or agent, and to protect the property of the deceased from any interference of
local authorities of the country in which he may have deceased; and to this end, it
l also be the duty of the consul to place his official seals on all or any portions of the
›erty of the deceased, as may be required by the said agent or trustee, and to break
remove the same seals when required by the said agent or trustee, and not otherwise;
the said consul, receiving therefor the fees prescribed by law, viz: two dollars for each
every seal.

Before concluding their report, the committee proceed to notice briefly
ıe of the special suggestions contained in the resolutions of reference,
embraced in the views already presented.

One of them relates to the expediency of modifying the act of 1803,
ıs to exempt from any contribution to the fund for the relief of Ameri-
seamen in foreign ports, the owners and masters of vessels which
r have been sold abroad in consequence of injuries resulting from the
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:he intent and meaning of the act of 1803, that the payment of the
:e months' additional wages should be required in such cases. In-
d, an original construction of the act to this effect, was given in an
:ial opinion of the then attorney-general of the United States, in
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r, 1805. The same construction has been adopted by subsequent at-
ıey-generals, in opinions of more recent date. These opinions are
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stion. As, however, it is understood that there is no uniformity of
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ıces have occurred in which the misfortunes of the owner of a wreck-
vessel have been aggravated by the exaction of this extra payment to
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tement of payments from the Treasury, on account of the relief and protection of American seamen, from January 1, 1834, *to December* 31, 1843, *including the sums aid for the return of seamen to the United States—Treasury Department, Register's Office, February* 27, 1844.

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35,.....	34,479 40	1840,.....	43,055 99
36,.....	30,481 39	1841,.....	49,466 98
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wages to which said mariner is entitled, under the provisions of the act of February 28th, 1803, unless, upon due investigation into the circumstances under which the master and mariner have jointly applied for such discharge, and on a separate examination of such mariner, the consul, vice-consul, or commercial agent, shall be satisfied that it is for the interest and welfare of such mariner to be so discharged; nor shall any consul, vice-consul, or commercial agent, discharge any mariner as aforesaid, without requiring the full amount of three months' wages, as provided by the above-named act, unless under such circumstances as will, in his judgment, secure the United States from all liability to expense on account of such mariner: *Provided, only*, That in the cases of stranded vessels, or vessels condemned as unfit for service, no payment of extra wages shall be required.

2. That every consul, vice-consul, and commercial agent of the United States, shall keep a detailed list of all mariners discharged by them, respectively, specifying their names, and the names of the vessels from which they were discharged, and the payments (if any) which were required on the discharge of each, and the sums of money (if any) which were afterwards advanced on account of each, and shall make official returns of said lists half-yearly, to the treasury department.

3. That every consul, vice-consul, and commercial agent of the United States, shall make an official entry of every discharge which they shall grant, respectively, on the list of the crew and shipping articles of the vessel from which such discharge shall be made, specifying the payment (if any) which has been required in each case; and if they shall have remitted the payment of the two months' wages to which the mariner is entitled, they shall also certify, on said shipping list and articles, that they have allowed the remission upon the joint application of the master and mariner therefor, after a separate examination of the mariner, after a due investigation of all the circumstances, and after being satisfied that the discharge so allowed, without said payment, is for the interest and welfare of the mariner; and if they shall have remitted the payment of the one month's wages to which the United States is entitled, they shall certify that they have allowed the remission, after a due investigation of all the circumstances, and upon being satisfied that they are such as will, in their judgment, secure the United States from all liability to expense on account of such mariner; and a copy of all such entries and certificates shall be annually transmitted to the treasury department, by the proper officer of the customs in the several ports of the United States.

4. That if any consul, vice-consul, or commercial agent of the United States, upon discharging a mariner without requiring the payment of the one month's wages to which the United States is entitled, shall neglect to certify, in the manner required in such case by the third section of this act, he shall be accountable to the treasury department for the sum so remitted. And in any action brought by a mariner to recover the extra wages to which he is entitled, under the act of February 28th, 1803, the defence that the payment of such wages was duly remitted, shall not be sustained without the production of the certificate in such case required by this act; or, when its non-production is accounted for, by the production of a certified copy thereof; and the truth of the facts certified to, and the propriety of the remission, shall be still open to investigation.

5. That if, upon the application of any mariner, it shall appear to the consul, vice-consul, or commercial agent, that he is entitled to his discharge under any act of Congress, or according to the general principles of the maritime law, as recognized in the United States, he shall discharge such mariner, and shall require of the master the payment of three months' wages, as provided in the act of February 28th, 1803, and shall not remit the same, nor any part thereof, except in the cases mentioned in the proviso of the ninth clause of the first section of the act of July 20th, 1840, and in the proviso of the first section of this act.

6. That every consul, vice-consul, and commercial agent, for any neglect to perform the duties enjoined upon him by this act, shall be liable to any injured person for all damage occasioned thereby; and for any violation of the provisions of the first and fifth sections of this act, shall also be liable to indictment, and to a penalty, in the manner provided by the eighteenth clause of the first section of the act of July 20th, 1840.

7. That the act of April 14th, 1792, concerning consuls, &c., is hereby so amended, that if any American citizen dying abroad shall, by will, or any other writing, leave special directions for the management and settlement, by the consul, of the personal or other property which he may die possessed of in the country where he may die, it shall be the duty of the consul strictly to observe the directions so given by the deceased. Or, if such *citizen, so dying*, shall, by will, or any other writing, have appointed any other person than *the consul* to take charge of and settle his affairs, in that case it shall be the duty of the *consul*, when and so often as required by the so appointed agent or trustee of the deceased,

to give his official aid in whatever way may be necessary to facilitate the operations of such trustee or agent, and to protect the property of the deceased from any interference of the local authorities of the country in which he may have deceased; and to this end, it shall also be the duty of the consul to place his official seals on all or any portions of the property of the deceased, as may be required by the said agent or trustee, and to break and remove the same seals when required by the said agent or trustee, and not otherwise; he, the said consul, receiving therefor the fees prescribed by law, viz: two dollars for each and every seal.

Before concluding their report, the committee proceed to notice briefly some of the special suggestions contained in the resolutions of reference, not embraced in the views already presented.

One of them relates to the expediency of modifying the act of 1803, so as to exempt from any contribution to the fund for the relief of American seamen in foreign ports, the owners and masters of vessels which may have been sold abroad in consequence of injuries resulting from the perils of the sea. The committee are of opinion that it was never within the intent and meaning of the act of 1803, that the payment of the three months' additional wages should be required in such cases. Indeed, an original construction of the act to this effect, was given in an official opinion of the then attorney-general of the United States, in 1804; and this opinion was made the basis of instructions to our consuls and consular agents, in a circular letter of the department of state, in July, 1805. The same construction has been adopted by subsequent attorney-generals, in opinions of more recent date. These opinions are annexed to the report, as furnishing the best exposition of the act in question. As, however, it is understood that there is no uniformity of construction on this point, in the various foreign ports, and as some instances have occurred in which the misfortunes of the owner of a wrecked vessel have been aggravated by the exaction of this extra payment to the crew, the committee recommend the adoption of an explanatory proviso to meet the case.

A second inquiry contained in the resolutions of reference, relates to the expediency of modifying the act of 1792, concerning consuls, so as to provide greater securities for the execution of the wills of American citizens dying abroad.

The committee are of opinion, that nothing more is necessary to this end, than to develop more fully and more clearly the existing provisions of law. They have, accordingly, appended to the bill given above, an explanatory section on this subject.

Statement of payments from the Treasury, on account of the relief and protection of American seamen, from January 1, 1834, *to December* 31, 1843, *including the sums paid for the return of seamen to the United States—Treasury Department, Register's Office, February* 27, 1844.

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Art. VII—ANNALS OF AMERICAN COMMERCE.

NUMBER III.*

1770. *Act to Repeal Duties, except on Tea, &c.*—The affairs of the colonies now occupied the attention of Parliament. The British merchants who traded to America, had sustained immense losses by the rejection of their goods; and, apprehensive of ruin, if the associations should continue, presented petitions to Parliament, stating their sufferings, and praying for its invention. On the 5th of March, Lord North proposed a bill for the repeal of part of the act of 1767, which laid a duty on glass, paper and painters colors, but continuing that part of the law which exacted a duty from tea. He assigned as a reason for bringing in the bill, the dangerous combinations which the imposts had produced in America, with the losses and dissatisfactions which they had caused among the merchants at home. He censured the act, not as an impolitic claim, but as an unproductive impost. "The articles taxed," he said, "being chiefly British manufactures, ought to have been encouraged, instead of being burdened with assessments. The duty on tea was continued, for maintaining the parliamentary right of taxation. An impost of threepence in the pound could never be opposed by the colonists, unless they were determined to rebel against Great Britain. Besides, a duty on that article, payable in England, and amounting to nearly one shilling in the pound, was taken off on its exportation to America, so that the inhabitants of the colonies saved ninepence in the pound." The minister ought better to have understood the sentiments of the American colonists, whose declarations and acts demonstrated, that their objection was not to the amount, but to the claim. The members of opposition saw and predicted the inefficacy of his plea, and repeated the arguments on the injustice and inexpediency of taxing America, and the evils which had arisen from the attempt; but his propositions were carried by a large majority. "The act may be considered an omen of Lord North's administration."

On the 12th of April, the king gave his consent to the act for repealing the duties, with its exception of the duty on tea. This duty was continued to keep up the sovereignty. When the stamp act was repealed, the Parliament took care to pass an act "for securing the dependence of America on Great Britain." That declaratory act, and this reservation of the duty on tea, left the cause of contention between the two countries in its entire force. Lord North, who had moved the repeal of the obnoxious port duties of 1767, excepting the duty on tea, being strongly urged by the members in opposition, not to preserve the contention when he relinquished the revenue, he replied: "Has the repeal of the stamp act taught the Americans obedience? Has our lenity inspired them with moderation? Can it be proper, while they deny our legal power to tax them, to acquiesce in the argument of illegality, and, by the repeal of the whole law, to give up that power? No: the properest time to exert our right of taxation is when the right is refused. To temporise, is to yield; and the authority of the mother country, if it is now unsupported, will, in reality, be relinquished for ever. A total repeal cannot be thought of, *till America* is prostrate at our feet."

Governor Pownall, who moved to include the duty on tea as an amend-

* Continued from 1769, Merchants' Magazine, for August, 1844, pp. 159 to 163.

ment to the original motion, acknowledged that even the total repeal of the duties in question, though it might be expected to do much, would not restore satisfaction to America. "If," said he, "it be asked, whether it will remove the apprehensions excited by your resolutions and address of the last year, for bringing to trial, in England, persons accused of treason in America? I answer, no. If it be asked, if this commercial concession would quiet the minds of the Americans as to the political doubts and fears which have struck them to the heart throughout the continent? I answer, no. So long as they are left in doubt, whether the habeas corpus act, whether the bill of rights, whether the common law, as now existing in England, have any operation and effect in America, they cannot be satisfied. At this hour, they know not whether the civil constitutions be not suspended and superseded by the establishment of a military force. The Americans think that they have, in return to all their applications, experienced a temper and disposition that is unfriendly; that the enjoyment and exercise of the common rights of freemen have been refused to them. Never, with these views, will they solicit the favor of this house—never more will they wish to bring before Parliament the grievances under which they conceive themselves to labor. Deeply as they feel, they suffer and endure with a determined and alarming silence: for their liberty, they are under no apprehensions. It was first planted under the auspicious genius of the constitution. It has grown up into a verdant and flourishing tree; and should any severe strokes be aimed at the branches, and fate reduce it to the bare stock, it would only take deeper root and spring out again more hardy and durable than before. They trust to Providence, and wait with firmness and fortitude the issue."

The event proved that Mr. Pownall knew, incomparably better than Lord North, the character and state of the colonies. During his residence in America, while successively governor of two of the provinces, he acquired that knowledge which the British ministry could not, and some provincial governors would not acquire.

The jealousy of the colonists was directed against the principle of the government, which was as discernible in the imposition of a small, as of a larger duty. The partial repeal, therefore, was not satisfactory; and, though the general plan of non-importation was now relinquished, it appeared to be the sense of the principal commercial towns that no tea should be imported, and that, if any were brought into their ports, it should be smuggled to avoid paying the duty. An association was formed at the same time, not to drink tea, until the act imposing the duty should be repealed.*

1772. *The Exports* from Georgia, in 217 vessels, amounted to £121,677 sterling.

1773. *Duty on Tea Resisted.*—The British government, determined to carry into execution the duty on tea, attempted to effect by policy, what was found to be impracticable by constraint. The measures of the colonists had already produced such diminutions of exports from Great Britain, that the warehouses of the East India Company contained about 17,000,000 lbs. of tea, for which a market could not readily be procured. The unwillingness of that company to lose their commercial profits, and

* *Holmes's Annals of America.* Gordon, i. 198, 199. President Adams, Let. i. *Belsham, Great Britain, v. b. 15.*

of the ministry to lose the expected revenue from the sale of the tea in America, led to a compromise for the security of both. The East India Company were authorized by law to export their tea, free of duties, to all places whatever; by which regulation, tea, though loaded with an unexceptionable duty, would come cheaper to America than before it had been made a source of revenue. The crisis now approached when the colonies were to decide, whether they would submit to be taxed by the British Parliament, or practically support their own principles and meet the consequences. One sentiment appears to have pervaded the entire continent. The new ministerial plan was universally considered as a direct attack on the liberties of the colonists, which it was the duty of all to oppose. A violent ferment was everywhere excited, the corresponding committees were extremely active, and it was very generally declared that, whoever should, directly or indirectly, countenance this dangerous invasion of their rights, is an enemy to his country. The East India Company, confident of finding a market for their tea, reduced, as it now was, in its price, freighted several ships to the colonies with that article, and appointed agents for the disposal of it. Some cargoes were sent to New York; some to Philadelphia; some to Charleston, South Carolina; and three to Boston. The inhabitants of New York and Philadelphia sent the ships back to London; "and they sailed up the Thames to proclaim to all the nation, that New York and Pennsylvania would not be enslaved."* The inhabitants of Charleston unloaded the tea and stored it in cellars, where it could not be used, and where it finally perished.

Tea Destroyed at Boston.—The inhabitants of Boston tried every measure to send back the three tea ships which had arrived there, but without success. The captains of the ships had consented, if permitted, to return with their cargoes to England; but the consignees refused to discharge them from their obligations; the custom-house, to give them a clearance for their return; and the governor, to grant them a passport for clearing the fort. It was easily seen, that the tea would be gradually landed from the ships lying so near the town; and that, if landed, it would be disposed of, and the purpose of establishing the monopoly and raising a revenue effected. To prevent this dreaded consequence, a number of armed men, disguised like Indians, boarded the ships and threw their whole cargoes of tea into the dock.†

The entries at the port of Boston, this year, were 587; the clearances, 411.

1791. *Imports into the United States.*—In 1791, the imports into the United States were valued at $19,823,060.

1801. *Exports of South Carolina.*—There were exported from South Carolina nearly 65,000 barrels of rice, and upwards of 8,000,000 pounds of cotton. The number of vessels which entered the harbor of Charleston, exclusive of the coasters of South Carolina, during the year, was 1,274. The exports from the state, exclusive of rice and cotton, were 8,502 pounds of indigo, 5,996 hogsheads of tobacco; and the value of the entire exports was $14,304,045.

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* J. Adams.

† Gordon, i. Lett. 7. Marshall, ii. c. 3. Pres. Adams, Lett. i. Ramsay, Rev. S. Car. *i. 15, 16.* Coll. Mass. Hist. Soc. ii. 45. Annual Register. About 17 persons boarded the ships in Boston harbor, and emptied 342 chests of tea.

MONTHLY COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE.

The fall trade, although fairly prosperous, has been, thus far, more backward, and less animated, than was anticipated. The imports of foreign goods, although they have been in amount 50 per cent greater than last year, are not yet so large as for the previous year, 1842. Notwithstanding this comparatively small supply, however, the demand is apparently not equal to it, and prices are very heavy, leaving a loss on many descriptions. This is partly owing to the high prices necessarily charged for the goods, under present circumstances, and partly to the impression which obtained in the interior, that the import of goods was unusually large, and that money was become dearer; and that, therefore, goods would be lower in the latter part of the season. Consequently, the postponement of visits to the city has, in some measure, contributed to the decline in goods. The large amount of duties collected during the past year has, in a great degree, contributed to the impression that the import of goods is very large. According to the law of last year, the fiscal year ends June 30. The compromise act expired June 30, 1842; and on the 1st of September of that year, the present tariff came into operation. The official returns give the customs revenue of the whole United States, for the last three years, ending June 30, 1844, as follows:—

CUSTOMS REVENUES OF THE UNITED STATES.

Years.	Duties.	Dutiable imp
1842, (last year compromise act.).....	$21,597,875	$75,805,874
1843, ...	12,817,561	38,452,503
1844,.....	26,109,188	72,525,500

This is for the year ending June 30. For that ending September 30, according to the old arrangement, the figures would be somewhat higher. The returns show, however, that the actual import of dutiable goods is not so large as in 1842; which was, in relation to former years, one of a small trade. The small supply of foreign goods which was received last year, suffered the stocks, both in the stores of the Atlantic border, and the shops of the interior, as well as in the hands of consumers, to become greatly reduced; and the actual wants of trade stimulated a renewed demand this year—not, however, to such an extent but that a supply equal to that of 1842, is sufficient to glut the markets. The cash duties collected, have produced a great accumulation of money in the vaults of the government banks; which, although withdrawn from commerce, has not produced any material advance in the rate of money. The amount in the banks, to the credit of the federal government, has been as follows:—

UNITED STATES DEPOSITS IN BANKS.

	June 21.	July 29.	August 26.
Bank of Commerce, New York,.....	$1,870,472	$1,206,277	$1,275,356
" America, "	1,327,519	1,189,256	2,557,436
Am. Exchange Bank, "	119,280	997,280	830,583
Merchants' Bank, "	1,066,890	1,881,426	1,440,126
Total, New York,.....	$4,384,161	$5,274,239	$6,103,501
Other banks,.....	4,763,282	4,755,373	5,417,494
Total,.....	$8,747,443	$10,029,612	$11,520,995

Near $2,000,000 accumulated in the government banks in sixty days, beyond what was checked out for payment on government accounts in other quarters. The amount in the treasury, July 1st, 1843, was $10,434,507; of which a large portion was the proceeds of a 5 *per cent loan, authorized* for the redemption of outstanding treasury-notes, *which have since been nearly all redeemed.* In January last, the large imports began to

throw a balance into the treasury, which has since swollen to near $13,000,000. At the close of September of this year, near $6,000,000 will be paid out for the government debt, due in January next. It is not probable that the customs will continue to accumulate to so great an extent for the balance of the present year, nor that the revenue for the next year will be as large. At the present average rate of duties, the proceeds of the three articles of cotton, tobacco, and rice, exported from the United States, and returned in goods, would yield a revenue of $22,000,000, or a sum sufficient for the support of the government.

The comparatively small imports of the present year have obviated the necessity for the shipment of any specie, as was at one time expected. The movement of the cotton crop, under the influence of speculation, had the effect, in the winter months, of diminishing the amount of exchange then upon the market, and of throwing the supply more into the summer than in usual years, consequent upon the large stocks which were held in the winter months; and to do which, required the employment of sums of money so large, as to raise the rate of interest, in February last, to 7 per cent. Cotton, however, then began to go forward, and the rate of money to fall, while exchanges remained steady. The following table, from the able cotton circular of W. P. Wright, Dorr's buildings, New York, gives a brief sketch of the cotton trade, and its influence upon exchanges for the year. We insert it here, as a matter of record:—

STATEMENT

Showing the sales of Cotton, the prices for "Fair Uplands" and "Fair Orleans," in the city of New York, with the rates of freight to Liverpool, and the course of Exchange on London and Paris, at the middle and close of each month, from September 1, 1843, to August 31, 1844.

Date.	Fair Uplands.	Fair Orleans.	Freight to Liverpool.	Exch. on London.	Exchange on Paris.	Stock in the United States.	
1843.			sq. rd.			1844.	1843.
Sept. 14,	8½ a 8¾	8¾ a 9	3-16 a 1-4*d*	9½ a 9¾	5.23¾ a 5.22½		
" 30,	9¼ a 9½	9⅝ a 10	3-16 a 1-4	9¼ a 9½	5.25 a	88,181	43,014
Oct. 14,	8½ a 9	9 a 9½	1-4 a 1-4	9 a 9¼	5 26¼ a 5.25	.....	.....
" 30,	8¼ a 8¾	9 a 9¼	5-16 a 3-8	8¼ a 8¾	5.27½ a	149,123	121,416
Nov. 14,	8½ a 9	9½ a 10	3-8 a 7-16	7¼ a 7¾	5.35 a 5.32½	.....	.....
" 30,	8¾ a 9	9½ a 10	5-16 a 7-16	8 a 8¼	5.33¾ a 5.32½	256,632	221,580
Dec. 14,	9 a 9¼	9¾ a 10¼	3-8 a 1-2	8¼ a 8¾	5.33¾ a 5.32½	.....	.....
" 30,	9½ a 9¾	10¼ a 10½	3-8 a 1-2	9 a 9½	5.27½ a	427,727	341,139
1844.							
Jan. 14,	10½ a 10¾	10¾ a 11	3-8 a 7-16	9 a 9½	5.28¾ a 5.27½	.....	.....
" 30,	10½ a .0¾	10¾ a 11	3-8 a 7-16	9 a 9¼	5.32½ a 5.30	521,803	384,471
Feb. 14,	10¼ a 10½	10½ a 10¾	1-2 a 5-8	9 a 9¼	5.32½ a 5.30	.....	.....
" 28,	10 a 10⅛	10¼ a 10½	1-2 a 5-8	8¾ a 9	5.30 a 5.28¾	620,994	422,137
M'rch 14,	8¾ a 8⅞	9¼ a 9⅜	1-2 a 5-8	8 a 8¼	5.31¼ a	.....	.....
" 30,	8¼ a 8½	8¾ a 9	7-16 a 9-16	8¼ a 8½	5.30 a 5.27½	744,209	466,285
April 13.	8¼ a 8½	8½ a 8¾	3-8 a 1-2	8¼ a 8¾	5.27½ a	.....	.....
" 30,	8 a 8¼	8½ a 8¾	3-8 a 7-16	8½ a 9	5.28¾ a 5.27½	603,814	354,894
May 15,	7¾ a 8	8 a 8¼	5-16 a 3-8	8½ a 9	5.27½ a	.....	.....
" 31,	7⅞ a 7¾	8 a 8¼	1-4 a 5-16	8¾ a 9¼	5.26¼ a 5.25	404,644	249,097
June 15,	7¾ a 8¼	8¼ a 8½	9-32 a 11-32	9 a 9¼	5.26¼ a	.....	.....
" 29.	7¾ a 8	8¼ a 8½	3-16 a 1-4	9 a 9½	5.26¼ a 5.25	218,469	140,031
July 15.	7¾ a 8¼	8¼ a 8½	3-16 a 3-16	9¼ a 9½	5.27½ a 5.26¼	.....	.....
" 31.	7¾ a 8	8¼ a 8½	3-16 a 1-4	9½ a 9¾	5.26¼ a 5.25	150,908	116,846
Aug. 15.	7½ a 7¾	8 a 8¼	3-16 a 1-4	9¾ a 10	5.23¾ a 5.22½	.....	.....
" 31.	7¼ a 7½	7¾ a 8	1-4 a 5-16	9¾ a 10	5.22½ a	117,453	95,162

This gives the complete movement for the year. The price, under the influence of *speculation,* (based on a short crop,) began to swell towards the close of November, and

continued to do so up to the close of January, when the accounts from Manchester, of a reduced consumption, consequent upon the increased price, checked the market; and, followed by receipts much in excess of the supposed short crop, entirely broke the speculation; and cotton going forward, rapidly enhanced freights, reduced bills, and, releasing a large sum of money from cotton, diminished the rate of interest. It will be observed that the stock has been uniformly much larger at the close of each successive month, than at the corresponding period of the previous year; showing that the export, and consequently the supply of bills, has been spread more uniformly through the year; giving, in the foregoing table, a most extraordinary uniformity in the price of sterling. At no time through the year has it varied from *par* sufficiently to admit of the movement of specie, and we may observe that the internal exchanges have, throughout the year, exhibited the same features.

The price of cotton closed in this port 11 per cent less than at the opening of the season; and the prospect is, that, for the coming year, low and steady rates, uninfluenced by speculation, will be preserved. The receipts and exports of cotton, in all the ports of the United States, have been, according to the circular of Mr. Wright, monthly as follows:—

STATEMENT

Showing the Comparative Receipts, Exports, and Stocks of Cotton, for all the ports in the United States, as made up in New York on the 1st of each month, for the years 1843, '44, *and* 1842, '43.

Date.	Receipts from 1st Sept'r, 1843.	Receipts from 1st Sept'r, 1842.	Exports. To Great Britain.	France.	North of Europe.	Other foreign ports.	Total fm. Sept. 1, 1843, to date.	Total fm. Sept. 1, 1842, to date.
1843—October 1st,....	17,189	32,131	1,424	2,971	1,769	419	6,603	12,654
" November 1st,..	115,270	167,016	6,702	7,621	1,789	2,972	19,084	59,158
" December 1st,..	335,097	424,667	63,213	44,095	3,016	8,318	118,642	184,809
1844—January 4th,....	644,695	783,897	151,854	65,967	4,347	9,883	231,351	391,309
" February 1st,...	840,823	1,198,709	219,863	83,621	4,769	13,262	321,535	667,879
" March 1st,.....	1,181,694	1,496,179	282,474	115,199	6,069	16,140	419,882	939,712
" April 1st,.....	1,503,345	1,880,538	398,750	138,892	11,833	22,641	572,116	1,230,454
" May 1st,.....	1,761,010	2,090,382	673,805	190,360	26,668	35,042	925,875	1,545,188
" June 1st,.....	1,999,644	2,251,175	918,479	213,832	38,830	55,545	1,246,695	1,772,006
" July 2d,.....	1,963,268	2,354,973	1,107,188	263,037	53,605	67,220	1,491,050	1,934,047
" August 1st,....	2,000,890	2,365,253	1,161,525	274,795	60,555	71,595	1,568,470	1,981,166
" September 2d,..	2,019,054	2,374,332	1,190,657	280,050	66,940	74,202	1,611,849	2,005,889

STATEMENT

Showing the Weekly, Monthly, and Total Receipts of Cotton, into the principal ports of the United States, from the 1st of September, 1843, *to* 31*st of August,* 1844.

Date.	N. Orl's.	Mobile.	Florida.	G'rgia.	S. Carolina.	N. Carolina.	W'kly total.	Monthly total.	Grand total.
1843.									
September 9,....	2,073	552	..	1,037	860	56	4,578		4,578
" 16,....	1,702	707	17	1,245	690	..	4,361		8,939
" 23,....	3,810	959	85	1,280	2,184	145	8,463		17,402
" 30,....	7,491	1,259	47	1,297	2,734	166	12,994		30,396
Total, September,..	15,076	3,477	149	4,859	6,468	367		30,396	
October 7,.....	13,918	1,464	53	2,367	5,609	..	23,492		53,888
" 14,.....	15 203	556	13	2,086	5,293	188	23,339		77,227
" 21,.....	19,985	2,703	..	4.215	10,067	11	36.981		114,208
" 28,.....	23,776	1,073	1,086	2 129	9,451	134	37,739		151,947
Total, October,....	72,882	5,796	1,152	10,797	30,591	333		121,551	
November 4,....	20,309	4,755	1,423	6,614	9,094	252	42,447		194,394
" 11,....	24,468	4,193	550	3,755	8,678	583	44,227		238,621
" 18,....	30,933	5,688	1,823	6,319	6,708	129	51,600		290,221
" 25,....	24 899	9,393	2,765	8,264	8,337	..	53,658		343,879
Total, November,.	102,609	24,039	6,561	24,952	32,817	964		191,932	

STATEMENT—Continued.

Date.	New Orleans.	Mobile.	Florida.	Georgia.	S. Carolina.	N. Carolina.	W'kly total.	Monthly total.	Grand total.
1843.									
December 2,.....	29,957	17,037	1,220	7,174	9,557	17	64,962		408,841
" 9,.....	21,980	23,873	8,291	8,240	12,279	79	71,752		480,593
" 16,.....	25,630	23,101	9,869	12,063	11,346	714	82,723		563,316
" 23,.....	19,613	23,202	9,528	8,718	8,706	421	70,248		633,564
" 30,.....	18,532	20,159	8,763	6,320	10,522	224	64,520		698,084
Total, December,..	115,712	104,432	37,651	42,515	52,420	1,455		354,205	
1844.									
January 6,.....	23,979	18,575	8,165	7,447	7,408	731	66,305		764,388
" 13,.....	19,626	20,614	4,561	9,428	11,297	556	66,082		830,471
" 20,.....	14,781	18,745	5,573	5,837	6,970	569	52,475		882,946
" 27,.....	24,093	19,839	6,364	8,715	8,080	24	67,115		950,061
Total, January,...	82,479	77,773	24,663	31,427	33,755	1,880		251,997	
February 3,.....	26,331	10,249	6,919	7,738	11,101	210	62,578		1,012,639
" 10,.....	30,120	19,299	5,012	7,743	14,598	545	77,317		1,089,956
" 17,.....	36,229	22,245	6,491	7,105	9,975	362	82,391		1,172,347
" 24,.....	36,622	23,763	4,345	6,800	9,599	15	81,144		1,253,491
Total, February,..	129,296	75,546	22,767	29,386	45,273	1,162		303,430	
March 2,.....	33,239	21,917	2,923	6,384	10,240	664	75,367		1,328,858
" 9,.....	34,623	16,180	6,265	10,656	10,204	518	78,446		1,407,304
" 16,.....	25,877	15,138	5,932	6,179	7,023	236	60,986		1,468,290
" 23,.....	22,550	22,724	6,681	6,727	3,995	262	62,943		1,531,235
" 30,.....	24,185	16,774	3,750	7,818	2,413	8	54,948		1,586,183
Total, March,.....	140,474	92,737	25,551	37,764	34,478	1,688		332,692	
April 6,.....	26,615	20,443	3,217	2,217	15,505	282	68,279		1,654,462
" 13,.....	25,259	8,995	5,144	6,279	5,675	..	51,352		1,705,814
" 20,.....	21,439	9,810	2,783	5,020	2,814	57	41,923		1,747,737
" 27,.....	20,615	10,711	2,418	6,988	2,504	7	43,243		1,790,980
Total, April,.....	93,928	49,959	13,562	20,504	26,498	346		204,797	
May 4,.....	15,898	8,009	2,203	3,073	4,327	178	33,688		1,824,668
" 11,.....	22,762	6,460	1,622	5,692	5,217	9	41,762		1,866,430
" 18,.....	10,289	2,480	1,712	2,959	3,132	28	20,600		1,887,030
" 25,.....	8,078	4,214	2,310	2,907	4,139	12	21,660		1,908,690
Total, May,.....	57,027	21,163	7,847	14,631	16,815	227		117,710	
June 1,.....	6,433	3,179	1,276	4,955	2,730	..	18,573		1,927,263
" 8,.....	6,417	1,576	820	3,252	1,978	75	14,118		1,941,381
" 15,.....	3,475	2,491	167	3,226	2,863	18	12,200		1,953,581
" 22,.....	3,583	931	795	1,419	1,613	..	8,341		1,961,922
" 29,.....	3,490	1,093	129	1,590	2,205	..	8,512		1,970,434
Total, June,.....	23,398	9,235	3,187	14,442	11,389	93		61,744	
July 6,.....	2,613	794	..	428	3,144	..	6,979		1,977,413
" 13,.....	1,741	444	146	1,234	338	20	3,923		1,981,336
" 20,.....	760	362	53	1,174	1,360	..	3,709		1,985,045
" 27,.....	1,307	447	224	1,042	1,202	40	4,262		1,989,307
Total, July,.....	6,421	2,047	423	3,878	6,044	60		18,873	
August 3,.....	1,323	223	105	1,120	724	..	3,495		1,992,802
" 10,.....	454	251	85	412	1,384	..	2,586		1,995,388
" 17,.....	2,729	221	76	808	2,096	..	5,921		2,001,309
" 24,.....	1,477	223	..	1,290	721	..	3,711		2,005,020
" 31,.....	1,956	649	..	1,086	878	..	4,569		2,009,589
Total, August,....	7,930	1,567	266	4,716	5,803	...		20,282	
Add receipts for Virginia, of which no regular weekly account is received,.....								14,500	
Add receipts at Baltimore and Philadelphia, overland,.....								1,100	
Add stock in Augusta and Hamburgh.....								17,498	
Add, for corrections made in annual statements at the South, and which I am unable to place under their respective dates,.....								5,892	
								38,990	
Less amount of Texas cotton received in New Orleans,.....								18,170	20,820
Total crop of the United States,.....									2,030,409

The crop of the year, which closed on the 1st instant, has been over 2,000,000 bales—considerably larger than was estimated at the commencement of the year. In our article for October, last year, when commenting upon the crop, we remarked as follows:—

"This is likely to prove a speculative year. As a general rule, however, in the history of the cotton trade, we believe no money has ever been made by shipping cotton on speculation. A speculative movement in the cotton market is generally on so extended a scale, and so violent in its course, that disaster, for the most part, attends it."

The year has now elapsed, and the foregoing tables indicate that the movements in cotton have formed no exception to the general rule. The speculation took place; and, although under circumstances more favorable for a successful consummation than perhaps ever before, resulted disastrously. All the elements of a large consumption of cotton were in active operation. Food in England was cheap, favoring a home trade—the China market took off unusual quantities of goods—Europe increased her consumption, as did our own manufacturers; and money, both here and England, was, throughout the year, unusually abundant;—yet, a crop of cotton, 370,000 bales less than the previous year, failed, under this favorable combination of circumstances, to impart success to the movements of operations. The result developed the truth, that the production of cotton is so rapid and large, that a continuance of the most favorable circumstances is necessary to absorb the annually increasing quantities, and sustain a fair price. The progress of the crops, for several years, has been as follows:—

GROWTH OF COTTON IN THE UNITED STATES, FOR FIFTEEN YEARS.

Years.	N. Orleans. *Bales.*	Mobile. *Bales.*	Florida. *Bales.*	Georgia. *Bales.*	South Carolina. *Bales.*	N. Carolina and Virg'a. *Bales.*	Total. *Bales.*
1828–29,....	264,249	79,958	4,146	249,166	168,275	104,021	870,415
1829–30,....	354,024	102,680	5,787	253,117	188,871	72,412	976,845
1830–31,....	426,485	113,186	13,073	230,502	185,116	70,435	1,008,847
1831–32,....	322,635	125,921	22,651	276,437	173,872	65,961	987,477
1832–33,....	403,443	129,366	23,641	271,025	181,879	61,087	1,070,438
1833–34,....	454,719	149,978	36,738	258,655	227,359	76,945	1,204,394
1834–35,....	511,146	197,692	52,085	222,670	203,166	67,569	1,254,328
1835–36,....	481,536	226,715	79,762	270,220	231,237	61,257	1,361,628
1836–37,....	601,014	232,243	83,703	262,971	196,377	46,665	1,422,968
1837–38,....	731,256	9,807	106,171	304,210	294,334	55,719	1,801,497
1838–39,....	584,994	251,742	75,177	205,112	210,171	33,336	1,360,532
1839–40,....	956,922	445,725	136,257	292,693	313,194	33,044	2,177,835
1840–41,....	820,140	317,642	93,552	149,000	225,943	28,669	1,634,945
1841–42,....	727,658	318,315	114,416	232,271	260,801	30,750	1,684,211
1842–43,....	1,069,246	481,714	161,088	299,491	351,658	24,678	2,378,875
1843–44,....	832,172	467,990	145,562	255,597	304,870	24,218	2,030,409

The exports, stocks, and United States consumption, as follows:—

EXPORTS, CONSUMPTION, AND STOCK.

	1839.	1840.	1841.	1842.	1843.	1844.
Great Britain,.....bales	798,418	1,246,791	858,762	935,631	1,469,711	1,202,498
France,..	242,243	447,465	348,776	398,129	346,139	282,685
North of Europe,.....	21,517	103,232	56,279	79,956	117,794	69,053
Other ports,.....	12,511	78,515	49,480	51,531	76,493	75,254
Total,.....	1,074,689	1,876,003	1,313,277	1,465,249	2,010,137	1,629,490
U. S. consumption,....	276,018	295,193	297,988	267,850	325,129	346,744
Stock U. S., Sept. 1,...	52,244	58,442	72,479	31,807	94,486	159,772

The growing crop will undoubtedly be a large one; as the season is favorable, and unusually early. The continual increase of physical force in those states where the yield is the most prolific, is greater, by far, than that of the consumption of cotton. The *receipts of cotton from Texas are now* nearly as large as the production of Virginia; and *with the emigration of slaves from* the latter states to Texas, will rapidly increase. Th

following is a table of the area in miles of the cotton states, and the number of slaves at different periods:—

States.	Area—miles.	Slaves. 1820.	1830.	1840.
Arkansas,.....	55,000	1,617	4,576	19,935
Tennessee,.....	40,200	80,107	141,603	183,059
Louisiana,.....	49,300	69,064	109,588	168,452
Mississippi,.....	47,680	32,814	65,659	195,211
Alabama,.....	52,900	47,439	117,549	253,532
Florida,.....	55,680	.....	15,011	25,717
Georgia,.....	61,500	149,656	217,531	280,944
South Carolina,.....	31,750	258,075	315,401	327,038
North Carolina,.....	49,500	205,017	245,601	245,817
Total,.....	443,510	843,775	1,332,519	1,699,695

In the state of North Carolina, there was, during the last ten years, no increase of slave population, and the production of cotton fell from 72,000 to 24,000 bales. The greatest increase in slave population and production, has been in Alabama; being near 800 per cent in ten years. The population of the four states, Arkansas, Tennessee, Mississippi, and Louisiana, the cotton of which is delivered at New Orleans, gives an increase of 75 per cent; and the receipts of cotton at that point have increased 200 per cent. The crop of 1840, received at New Orleans, was 956,922 bales. The slave population in those states, in that year, was 565,000; having increased 75 per cent, or 7½ per cent per annum—at which rate of increase, the slave population must now be 733,000; and the crop they have just delivered was 120,000 bales less than in 1840, although the bales this year are doubtless much heavier. With a favorable season for picking out, such as the present, and a late frost, it is by no means improbable that the crop may reach, from all sources, 3,000,000 bales. A fair crop, for the physical force, would be 2,500,000 bales—giving a rapidity of production far in excess of the consumption, under the most favorable circumstances. The consumption of cotton goods in the United States is very slow of progress. The number of bales taken by the manufacturers, in 1843, was 346,744, against 126,512 in 1830—an increase of 220,000 bales in thirteen years. The import of foreign cottons has diminished as follows:—

Import of Foreign Cotton Goods.

Years.	Dyed. *Yards.*	White. *Yards.*	Yarn. *Lbs.*
1836,.....	44,577,811	12,344,921	272,441
1839,.....	32,559,271	9,859,251	164,456
1840,.....	15,618,092	4,393,341	223,755
1843,.....	6,339,636	2,497,240	90,056

From 1836 to 1844, the consumption of cotton in the United States increased 110,000 bales; which, at an average of 375 lbs. per bale, gave a weight of 41,250,000 lbs. Deducting 10 per cent for waste, leaves 37,125,000 lbs.; and, at the usual weight of American cloths, (three and one-fifth yards to the pound,) gives an increased manufacture of 118,795,000 yards of cotton. It appears above, that, in the same period, there was a diminished import of 48,085,856 yards; which, deducted from the increased manufacture, gives an enhanced consumption of 70,709,144 yards of cotton cloth, in a period of seven years, during which, the population increased 3,000,000; being 23 yards per annum, for each inhabitant. It would appear, from the figures, that the consumption of cotton per head, in the United States, is much less now, than ten years since. If we take the weight *of cotton consumed* in 1831, with the number of yards imported, we shall find, on *comparing them* with the same items in 1843, that the consumption of cotton goods has *materially diminished*, as follows:—

	1841.	1843.
Bales consumed,	182,142	346,744
" weight,	375	375
Consumed, lbs.	88,303,250	130,029,000
Deduct 10 per cent,	8,830,325	13,002,900
Weight manufactured, lbs.	79,472,925	117,026,100
Yards of cloth, at 3 1-5 yards to lb,	254,311,360	374,483,520
" imported,	68,577,893	8,836,876
Consumption of goods,	322,889,253	383,320,396
Population,	13,288,420	18,580,000
Consumption per head, yards	24¼	20⅔

This gives a reduction, according to the population, of near 20 per cent. This calculation does not include the exports of cotton goods; which have, however, rather increased of late years, and would make the action in the consumption appear greater. The export of goods and yarns from Great Britain, in the same period, has been as follows:—

EXPORTS OF COTTON GOODS AND YARNS FROM GREAT BRITAIN.

	1841.	1843.	Increase.
Cotton, yards	421,385,303	782,140,921	360,755,618
" yarn, "	63,821,440	151,809,220	87,987,780
Import of U. States cotton,	219,334,628	424,297,576	204,962,948

Of this large increase, over 100,000,000 yards of plain cottons has been sent, in the last four years, to the China market. The increase of United States raw cotton imported, is equal to over 600,000 yards of cloth; showing that the increased consumption of Great Britain must have been over 200,000,000 yards, in the same period that the increase in the United States was 60,000,000 yards. This is apparently the case, notwithstanding that the home trade of Great Britain has of late labored under a severe depression, consequent upon the short harvests. It is now apparent that the evils growing out of that circumstance have subsided; and that the abundance of money, with cheap food, is again rapidly promoting an extension of trade. The export trade of the kingdom first feels the influence; and, during the last six months, an extraordinary improvement has been manifest, as compared with former years. This is apparent in the following table of the export of leading articles of British manufacture, for the first six months of each of the last four years:—

EXPORTS OF BRITISH PRODUCE AND MANUFACTURES, FOR FIRST HALF OF THE LAST FOUR YEARS.

	1841.	1842.	1843.	1844.
Coals and culm,	£315,180	£440,598	£319,470	£286,863
Cotton manufactures,	8,220,085	7,087,108	7,983,650	9,192,572
Cotton yarn,	2,979,651	3,419,278	3,299,176	2,914,872
Earthenware,	296,764	290,590	285,477	386,203
Glass,	234,053	156,012	175,988	204,905
Hardware and cutlery,	801,242	669,726	768,209	1,053,125
Linen mannfactures,	1,733,804	1,294,405	1,361,752	1,547,456
Linen yarn,	479,682	627,299	445,818	493,993
Metals—Iron and steel,	1,410,567	1,274,258	1,245,725	1,548,414
Copper and brass,	750,535	899,774	839,022	945,962
Lead,	84,306	174,196	160,380	157,177
Tin, in bars,	22,176	89,002	54,382	41,065
Tin-plate,	185,954	169,337	202,996	266,802
Silk manufactures,	425,963	303,866	311,100	380,837
Sugar, refined,	272,488	237,947	207,503	170,483
Wool, sheep and lamb's,	212,670	252,100	150,355	181,412
Woollen yarn,	199,411	225,420	217,115	370,117
Woollen manufactures,	2,733,281	2,226,095	3,035,009	4,251,24[illegible]

The export is here large, and evinces an extraordinary improvement in branches of industry employed in the export trade. The increase is the most in cottons and woollens; which show an increase, for six months, of £2,578,158. In woollen, the increase is near 100 per cent over the corresponding period of 1842. The consumption of foreign raw materials has not been so large.

QUANTITIES OF CERTAIN ARTICLES OF FOR'N AND COLONIAL PRODUCE, TAKEN INTO CONSUMPTION.

	1841.	1842.	1843.	1844.
Seeds, &c.—Clover,.....cwts.	70,342	153,035	63,092	76,864
Flax-seed,.....bush.	777,201	598,834	862,272	1,536,992
Rape,.....	202,422	106,631	184,360	297,030
Silk—Raw,.....lbs.	1,274,110	1,950,006	1,416,076	1,732,790
Waste knbs., &c.,.....	924,538	898,298	843,920	1,146,096
Thrown off, &c.,.....	154,116	199,861	167,904	172,081
Tallow,.....	409,929	370,887	375,084	315,521
Tea,.....	18,210,677	18,580,852	19,929,605	20,183,042
Tobacco, unmanufactured,.....	10,909,653	10,802,475	11,176,409	11,975,118
" man. and snuff,.....	97,135	102,115	129,865	122,535
Turpentine, (com.,).....cwts.	158,439	79,620	195,715	231,962
Wine—Cape,.....gallons	219,613	195,220	160,615	173,206
French,.....	197,608	214,630	168,084	254,002
Other sorts,.....	2,762,479	2,351,991	2,087,726	3,155,392
Total wine,.....	3,179,700	2,761,841	2,416,425	3,582,600
Wool, (cotton,) Br. poss.,...lbs.	22,900,177	35,324,283	19,354,944	28,049,056
" Foreign,.....	221,576,577	239,400,844	347,166,176	245,877,520
Total cotton wool,.....	244,476,748	274,725,127	366,521,120	273,927,567
Wool, sheep and lamb's,...lbs.	21,455,232	15,342,343	17,944,176	28,518,888
Flax,.....cwts.	559,499	479,101	657,204	589,131
Hemp,.....	141,178	135,104	193,492	168,472
Hides,.....	202,526	148,958	284,949	311,461
Indigo,.....lbs.	1,243,604	1,105,935	1,165,584	1,589,392

The export of foreign and colonial merchandise was as follows:—

FOREIGN AND COLONIAL MERCHANDISE RE-EXPORTED.

	1841.	1842.	1843.	1844.
Coffee—Br. possessions,....lbs.	3,695,750	1,057,004	49,571	38,806
" Foreign,.....	3,458,346	1,849,648	6,526,989	3,127,720
Dye & dye-stuffs—Cochineal,	439,507	354,957	2,018	2,719
Indigo,.....	1,805,641	1,835,650	14,110	22,450
Lac dye,.....	147,128	162,960	1,276	2,065
Log-wood,.....tons	2,419	4,081	1,499	1,544
Spices—Cassia Lignea,....lbs.	470,198	704,035	1,449,038	681,325
Cinnamon,.....	205,387	227,506	136,924	302,434
Nutmegs,.....	55,458	7,425	9,421	13,420
Pepper,.....	2,979,100	2,745,441	1,342,649	1,046,163
Sugar, (all kinds,).....cwts.	176,280	147,121	229,861	152,383
Tobacco, unmanufactured,.lbs.	5,587,059	6,252,667	4,524,233	4,157,870
Wine, (all sorts,).....gallons	1,072,613	764,137	717,285	836,694
Cotton wool,.....lbs.	10,799,179	28,456,712	173,890	132,282
Sheep's wool,.....	884,280	2,203,870	1,632,227	493,414

It is apparent, from these figures, that the foreign trade has taken the lead in the revival of prosperity; and the profits derivable from that trade, followed by the cheap food consequent upon the fine harvests, will stimulate the home consumption, and produce a *corresponding* increase in the consumption of raw materials.

MERCANTILE LAW DEPARTMENT.

CASE IN THE UNITED STATES CIRCUIT COURT, (NEW YORK,) BEFORE JUDGES THOMPSON AND BETTS.*

FREIGHT MONEY OF THE BRIG HARRIETT—BOTTOMRY LIEN ON FREIGHT OF SUBSTITUTED VOYAGE —BOTTOMRY UNDER COERCION—INSURER'S RIGHT TO SUBROGATION, IN INSURANCE ON BOTTOMRY.

In June, 1838, the brig Harriett, under command of W. H. Trott, as master, sailed on a voyage to Antwerp, carrying freight as a general ship. The brig stood in the name of D. H. Robinson. At Antwerp, she was consigned by Trott, under Robinson's orders, to Nottebohm Brothers. They put her in charge of Marsily, as ship-broker. On arrival at Antwerp, Trott requested his consignees to give him a memorandum of his nett freight, which they did. He then incurred debts to the whole amount of what he was to receive, for the supplies of his vessel, and set her up for a voyage to Cadiz, Montevideo, and home to the United States. On the 20th July, he left Antwerp on his voyage, in ballast; but, on the day after sailing, Marsily, who had advanced for the vessel's supplies, in calling on Nottebohm Brothers for payment, by Trott's direction, found that, in consequence of their not having charged a draft of $2,000, drawn by Robinson against the freight, but which draft they had accepted and paid, the funds in their hands were not sufficient to pay Marsily. Marsily then sued out process against Trott, as master, and arrested him, and detained the vessel, until he gave a bottomry bond for the balance of Marsily's account. In this bond, the voyage was changed, so as to be from Antwerp to Newcastle, in England, and then to the United States. The bottomry pledged vessel and freight, in usual form, for the amount of the advances. Marsily received, however, the balance of the freight from Nottebohm Brothers, which he credited on the bond, subject to a deduction afterwards stated. On giving the bond, Trott protested against the compulsion, before the American consul, but gave the bond. The vessel lay wind-bound in the Scheldt, for three weeks; during which time, Trott determined to resume his original voyage to Cadiz and Montevideo; and, on his sailing from the river, advised Marsily of this change. Marsily then got insurance on the bottomry bond for the new voyage, and paid the premium out of the balance of the freight which he had received from Nottebohm Brothers, crediting the rest on the bond. The vessel sailed for Cadiz, and there procured a quantity of salt on vessel's account, for which Trott drew bills at sixty days sight, on Robinson, at New York, in favor of Le Carre & Eschiopar, of that place, who had advanced him the money to buy the salt, with an understanding that the bills were to be paid out of the earnings of the vessel. These bills were remitted to Hogan & Milne, of New York, for collection. The vessel proceeded on the voyage to Montevideo, where the salt was sold, and its proceeds applied to the ship's use. There Trott took in a cargo for New York, under a charter-party, and sailed on his voyage home. On this voyage, the vessel met with disasters, and put into Bermuda, where she was condemned as unseaworthy, and sold. Captain Trott came on to New York, and hired vessels to go to Bermuda, and bring home his cargo. The cargo arrived at New York, and was placed in the hands of Grinnell, Minturn & Co., of that city; who were to receive the charter-freight from Montevideo, to pay the hire of the vessels which brought the cargo from Bermuda, and to account to Trott for the balance. This balance amounted to $1,454 97. Under these circumstances, a libel in the admiralty was filed in the District Court of New York, by Hicks & Co., on behalf

* *Reported expressly for the Merchants' Magazine.*

of Marsily, on the bottomry, claiming to subject the freight in Grinnell, Minturn & Co's hands to the payment of the bottomry. The freight was attached; and, by motion and order of the court, paid into the registry, to abide the decree. The bills of Trott, in favor of the Cadiz merchants, were protested; and Robinson, the owner, and Trott, the master, after the suit was commenced, assigned to Hogan & Milne, for the Cadiz merchants, the freight-moneys, to apply to the protested bills. Hogan & Milne appeared in the bottomry suit; and, under the assignment, and also under a claim upon the bills, claimed the balance of the Montevideo charter-money. Trott and Robinson also appeared in the suit; but, in their answers, set up the right to be in Hogan & Milne. There was evidence tending to show that Trott was the party really interested in the brig.

The cause was heard in the District Court, in New York. Mr. Lord, for the libellant, contended—1. That Trott was master and owner, at the date of the bottomry, and that it was given for money advanced for the vessel's benefit. The consignee could take a bottomry. (The Hero, 2 Dodson, 139.) 2. That it was competent for Trott, as master, in order to relieve himself from arrest, and the vessel from detention, on a just debt, contracted for the vessel's use, to bind himself to the voyage described in the bottomry, and to pledge accruing and prospective freight. (The Jacob, 4 Robinson's R., 201, 245. In the ship Warre, 8 Price, 256. Phillips *vs.* Ledley, 1 Wash. C. C. R., 228. The Aurora, 1 Wheaton's R., 96. The Virgin, 8 Peter's R., 538.) 3. That the parties to the bottomry, having put the money at risk upon the vessel and the voyage, the lien was a valid maritime lien, whether Trott were merely master, or also owner. (The Mary, 1 Paine, 671. The Draco, 2 Sumner, 157.) 4. That, although the vessel was lost, yet it was not in the voyage described in the bottomry, which therefore remained a valid lien, notwithstanding the loss; and it applied to the freight earned on the voyage substituted, without the creditor's consent, in place of the voyage described in the bottomry. 5. Hogan & Milne have no claim under the bills drawn by Trott, (1 Paine, 572—Murray *vs.* Lazarus;) and, under the assignment from Trott and Robinson, they can only stand in their place, against whom the bottomry was a lien.

Mr. Gerard, for Hogan & Milne, the claimants, insisted—1. That the bond was obtained by duress; and, on principles of policy, also, ought not be allowed; and therefore, unless the claim were a lien *per se*, it was not so under this bottomry. That the claim *per se* was not a lien, because the moneys were not advanced on an express agreement for a bottomry security, and that the bottomry creditor is bound to make this out clearly. 2. That the vessel having been lost, and not having arrived at her port of destination, the bottomry never became payable; and the freight stood on the same ground as the ship—so that the loss of the ship discharged the bond as to both. That the bond, at all events, did not attach upon the freight; which was, in fact, earned by the other vessels, which brought it on from Bermuda. 3. That there was no deviation, in fact, from the voyage contemplated at Antwerp—the bond executed under duress was no real change of the voyage—both parties knew, before sailing from the mouth of the Scheldt, that it was not intended to perform the voyage to Newcastle, and home, but the original voyage to Montevideo. The bond, in truth, described a mere fictitious, or supposed voyage. 4. That the freight was earned on a voyage subsequent to that covered by the bottomry. No freight was earned on any voyage from Antwerp, or from Newcastle. 5. That the bills of Trott, at Cadiz, being for the vessel's use, and the moneys so applied, a quasi hypothecation arose, in favor of the Cadiz merchants, posterior in date, and therefore preferable in privilege to the Antwerp bottomry. 6. That, if the freight in question should be subjected to the bottomry claim, the bottomry creditor should at least be obliged to account for what *he had* received, or was entitled to receive, under the insurance, upon the bottomry at Antwerp.

The District Judge (Betts) sustained the bottomry claim, and decreed payment of the bottomry out of the balance of the freight in the registry, so far as it would suffice. From this decree, an appeal was taken to the Circuit Court, and heard before the Circuit Judge, (Thompson.) He affirmed the decree of the District Judge, with costs, but without prejudice to any right of the appellants, Hogan & Milne, to be subrogated to the insurance effected by the bottomry creditor at Antwerp, on his bottomry interest. Hogan & Milne, under this reservation in the decree of affirmance, filed their bill in equity in the Circuit Court of the United States, for the southern district of New York, setting up a claim to the policy by way of subrogation, under their assignment of the freight-money from Trott and Robinson, and charging that such insurance money had been received by the bottomry creditor, which he ought to deduct from his claim on the proceeds in the admiralty, or to account for, or to assign over the policy, if the insurance money had not been received. To this bill in equity, Marsily, the bottomry creditor, demurred, for want of equity on the face of the bill.

Mr. Lord, for the demurrer:—1. The insurance was on the bottomry interest for the deviation voyage—not an insurance on the ship or freight. The complainants seeking a subrogation, can only have this insurance according to its conditions, and the rights incident to it. 2. The insurer on a bottomry claim, on payment of a loss, or on an abandonment, is himself entitled to be subrogated to all the rights and remedies of the creditor, against persons or property bound by the bond. (The Ætna Insurance Company *vs.* Tyler, 16 Wendall, 398. The Mayor of New York *vs.* Pentz, 24 Wendell's R., 671, and cases cited. The Atlantic Insurance Company *vs.* Storrow, 5 Paige's R., 285. 2 Ph. Insur., 282, 606, 609.) 3. Therefore the insurers on the bottomry are entitled, from the very nature of the contract, of which the complainant seeks the benefit, to the decree of the District Court, against the freight and Trott. The owners of the vessel cannot take them away from the insurer, inasmuch as the latter have a claim thereto, under the contract of insurance, of which a subrogation is sought.

Mr. Gerard, for the complainant, insisted that, as the premium was paid out of the moneys of the brig, arising from her outward freight, the benefit of the insurance belonged originally to them, the owners. That it would be unjust to allow Marsily to receive both his bottomry out of the freight, and his insurance out of the insurers, especially when the ship-owner had paid the premium; and it would be equally unjust to allow the insurers, under whose policy a loss had been sustained, to take back the loss from those very persons whose moneys had paid the premium. That, between the equities, that of the owners, whom the complainant represented, was superior to those of the bottomry creditor or his insurer, so far as respected the insurance money.

The Court (Thompson and Betts) decided that the insurance being on the bottomry, the insurers were entitled to that which could be obtained by their insured, the bottomry creditor. That this arose from the nature of the relation created by the contract of insurance; and if the complainant could be subrogated in place of the bottomry creditor, yet the insurer on bottomry had a right against him to the same thing—namely, to all that could be obtained by the creditor; which, in the present case, was the freight-money in controversy. The Court, therefore, allowed the demurrer, with costs, and dismissed the bill of complaint.

DECISION ON THE LAW OF CORPORATIONS.

In the Circuit Court of the United States, Judge Taney presiding, a suit was brought by the Swatara Railroad Company of Maryland, to recover of the executors of John M'Kim, jr., deceased, the sum of $500, the amount subscribed for ten shares of stock. On the part of the defendant, it was proved that the plaintiff's commissioner to receive subscriptions, *had agreed with certain* other stockholders, who had previously subscribed

their names on the list, to receive, in payment of their shares, Tide-water Canal stock, at its nominal amount, when, in fact, it was greatly depreciated in the market. This agreement, it was contended, was a fraud upon the other *bona fide* stockholders, and entitled them to a recission of their subscription.

The Court decided that each stockholder must be charged with notice of the company's charter, which authorized only payments of stock in money; and therefore, as the said agreement to receive depreciated securities was illegal and void, it was incompetent to the parties to the illegal agreement, to set it up in bar of an action brought against them for the stock subscribed; and, if the said parties would be precluded from setting up said agreement, neither could any other *bona fide* subscriber of stock rely upon the said illegal agreement for the purpose of annulling his own subscription. It is proper to state that the articles of subscription, signed by all the stockholders, purported, on their face, to be payable in dollars; but the Court decided that whether the collateral agreement to pay in depreciated securities was in writing, or by parole, it was equally inadmissable as a defence.

WAGES OF MINOR SEAMEN.

In the United States District Court, (Boston,) June, 1844. Before Sprague, district judge. Luxom *vs.* Osgood.

A minor, without the knowledge of his father, concealed himself on board of a whaling vessel, before she sailed from Salem, and was not discovered by the master until she had dismissed her pilot. When about a month out, the master stopped at Fayal, where there was an American consul, but said nothing to him about the boy. The boy performed the duty of a seaman during the whole voyage; and, when eighteen months out, signed the shipping articles.

The judge observed, in deciding this case, that it appeared that the ship staid about thirty-six hours at Fayal, and that the captain supposed he could not leave the minor with the consul at that place without paying him three months' wages. This was an error. This would not have been the case of the *discharge* of a seaman, within the statute of 1803, chapter 62; yet having, with the assent of the captain, acted as a seaman on board of the whaling vessel, before her arrival at Fayal, he was a *mariner*, within the meaning of the fourth section of that act; and it would have been the duty of the consul to have afforded him subsistence, and to have sent him to the United States, as it is to be presumed he would have done.

The captain knew that the father was entitled to the services of his runaway son. The captain neglected to request the consul at Fayal to send the boy home, as the consul would have been bound to do, but took him on a three years' whaling voyage, intending to have his services during that time. From that time, he must be deemed to have taken those services voluntarily; and the father is entitled to compensation. Nor can the seaman be deprived of his remedy against the owners because, as is urged, the master has hired more than a complement of men.

His Honor accordingly decreed compensation from the time the ship sailed from Fayal, adopting the lay given those who shipped as boys, and for which this lad subsequently shipped; that is, 1-150; and, in regard to time, he adopted the rule prescribed in shipping articles in case of death, and gave such proportion of 1-150 of the whole products of the voyage, as the time after the ship left Fayal bears to the whole time occupied in performing the voyage.

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS OF CHINA.

We published in the Merchants' Magazine, Volume IX., page 575 to 580, the new Chinese Tariff of Exports and Imports, and also the Regulations of British Trade in China; and in Volume X., pages 480 and 481, Alterations made in the Tariff, and the Regulations of China relating to Warehouses, Old and New Merchants, &c. The Chinese Repository, for March, 1844, furnishes us with the following additional regulations, entitled—

THE SUPPLEMENTARY TREATY BETWEEN ENGLAND AND CHINA.

Two translations of this treaty have been published—one in the Hong-Kong Gazette, and the other in the Chinese Repository. We have taken the translation of the latter, as the most correct and authoritative. The treaty regulations with England, it is understood, apply equally to the mercantile intercourse of the United States.

The seventeen articles of regulations agreed upon at Canton, between the imperial commissioner, H. E. Kiying, and the public envoy, H. E. Pottinger; which, having been officially reported to His Majesty, are allowed to be distributed among the five ports, to be a perpetual and uniform law for the management of affairs, and for the preservation of future good feeling.

I. The regulations for levying duties on imported and exported merchandise, which have passed the official seal, shall henceforth be held to be a law in the five ports of Canton, Fuchau, Amoy, Ningpo, and Shanghai.

II. The newly appointed commercial regulations, which have been officially promulged, shall henceforth be in force at the aforesaid five ports.

III. The fines levied on merchant vessels, which have entered port, and neglected to report themselves at the custom-house, together with the merchandise which has been confiscated to government, according to the third article of the recent commercial treaty, both money and goods, shall all revert to the imperial treasury of China, for the public service.

IV. As soon as the five ports of Canton, Fuchau, Amoy, Ningpo, and Shanghai, shall have been opened, the only places allowed for British merchants to trade at, shall be the above-named five ports, and they shall not be permitted to go to other ports; while the Chinese people shall not be permitted to connect themselves with them, and to trade clandestinely in other ports. Furthermore, the public envoy of the English nation has issued a proclamation, clearly forbidding the resort to other places; and, should the merchants of the English nation either break this contract, or disobey this regulation, affecting not to have heard of the proclamation of the public envoy, while they proceed to other ports, and wander about, buying and selling, it shall be lawful for the Chinese officers to confiscate both ship and cargo, altogether, and the English officers are not to make any objection. Should Chinese subjects proceed to other places, and secretly connect themselves with the English merchants, for the purpose of trade, they must be dealt with according to the laws of the country already existing.

V. Since the conclusion of the treaty of Nanking, the government will certainly not be responsible for the debts of merchants; and, according to the fourth article of the recent commercial treaty, the transactions between English and Chinese merchants are not to be conducted any more according to the old system of security hongs, when petitions were made for the payment of debts, as is on record; but henceforward, whether Chinese are indebted to English, or English to Chinese, if the accounts be correct, the persons present, and the property in existence, then the parties must appear before the consuls, and, in a public place, make an agreement; when, in accordance with the contract entered into, the different parties may pursue each other—but there is to be no general security of the whole body for individual merchants.

VI. At Canton, and other of the five ports, the English merchants, whether constant residents or occasional visiters, must not disorderly go into the villages, and gratify their desires in wandering about. Also, they must not go far into the interior to trade; but the Chinese officers ought, in *connection with* the English consuls, and in accordance with the *feelings of the people, and the nature of* the country, to consult, and fix a boundary, *which must not be passed over, in order* to maintain a constant good feeling, and peaceful *relations between the two nations.* Whenever sailors, and people from the vessels arrive

they must wait until the consuls and the native officers have first established the regulations, when they may be allowed to go on shore—but if Englishmen disobey these regulations, and disorderly enter the inner territory to ramble about, no matter what class or description of persons they may be, it will then be allowable for the people of the country to seize them, and deliver them over to the consuls of the English nation for punishment, as circumstances may require. But the people must not beat and wound them, lest they infringe upon the established harmony.

VII. In the treaty of Nanking, it has been already stated that Englishmen may take their families, and proceed to the five ports of Canton, Fuchau, Amoy, Ningpo, and Shanghai, to dwell, without being insulted or restricted; but the Chinese officers must, in unison with the English consuls, and in conformity with the feelings of the people, consult as to what places or houses, or sites of houses, they may make use of; which it shall be permitted to Englishmen to hire, the rent being according to the scale of prices current at the various ports for such purposes; in conformity with which, bargains may be struck, and contracts entered into—the Chinese, on the one hand, not practising extortion, and the English, on the other, not violently insisting on the hiring of particular spots. The consuls of the English nation shall annually make a report of the number of houses which the English have either built or hired, to the native officers; who shall, in their turn, report it to the proper tribunal. But the number of houses will naturally depend on the number of merchants, and the number of merchants on the state of trade; so that it will be difficult to fix the amount beforehand.

VIII. Formerly, the merchants of every foreign nation were permitted to trade at the single port of Canton, only; but, last year, it was agreed at Nanking that, if the emperor should ratify the treaty, the merchants of the various nations of Europe should be allowed to proceed to the four ports of Fuchau, Amoy, Ningpo, and Shanghai, for the purposes of trade, to which the English were not to make any objection. But, since every other nation has been put upon the same footing with the English, should the emperor in future manifest any new favor towards the various nations, then it should be allowable for the English to share in the same advantages. Neither the English nor foreign nations, however, must make this a pretext for disorderly soliciting further grace, in order to show their firm adherence to the treaty.

IX. Should any lawless Chinese, after infringing the laws, escape to Hong-Kong, or conceal themselves on board of any English men-of-war, or merchant vessels, as soon as the English officers have discovered them, they must be delivered over to the Chinese officers for punishment. Should the Chinese officers, however, make previous inquiry, or discover suspicious circumstances, which the English officers have not found out, then the Chinese officers shall seek an interview with the English officers, in order to examine and seize the offenders. When the criminals have already confessed, or evidence has been elicited, from which it would appear that the individuals in question are runaway felons, then the English officers shall deliver them up, without making any difficulty. Should English sailors or soldiers, or other British subjects, whether natives of England or its colonies, black or white, from whatever cause, escape to China, and conceal themselves there, the Chinese officers shall also seize and confine them, and deliver them over to the nearest English officer for judgment, without the slightest attempt at concealment, to the disturbance of the existing amicable arrangements.

X. At each of the five ports open for trade, there shall be an English man-of-war at anchor, in order to restrain the sailors on board of the English merchant vessels; which power the consuls may also avail themselves of, to keep in order the merchants of Great Britain and her colonies. The sailors on board of such man-of-war shall be subject to the order of the commanding officer on board of such vessel, and not be permitted to enter the inner territory; the laws regarding wandering about having equal reference to the seamen on board of the men-of-war that they have to the sailors from merchant vessels. When the man-of-war is about to leave, another man-of-war shall take her place; and the consul, or charge-d'affaires of the port, shall first inform the Chinese officers, in order to prevent suspicions. Whenever such men-of-war arrive in China, to relieve the others, the Chinese war-junks shall not interrupt them; and, since the English men-of-war do not carry cargo, or conduct trade, they may be exempted from the usual measurement fees, already mentioned in the fourteenth article of the commercial regulations, which are on record.

XI. The treaty of Nanking has already stipulated that, when the amount of money agreed upon shall have been paid, the troops garrisoned at Chusan and Kulang-su shall retire, and yield up those places to the government of China. With reference thereto, it is now agreed that, on the retirement of the troops, all those houses inhabited by the English officers, together with the temporary buildings and barracks, whether built or repaired

by the English, shall not be broken down, but delivered over to the Chinese officers, to be given to the original owners of the land or tenements, while the English shall not require any payment; in order to avoid delays in the evacuation of the place, and disputes of every kind—by which means, the amicable relations now subsisting may be preserved.

XII. The amount of duties and port-charges having now been arranged, in future all offences of British merchants connecting themselves with Chinese traders, for the purposes of smuggling, or evading the duties, or getting screened by the custom-house officers, in order to share the spoils, shall be done away with. The envoy of the British nation has already issued a proclamation, forbidding the English merchants from smuggling in the least degree, and commanding the consuls under his authority to exert themselves in restraining the English merchants who resort to the various ports for the purposes of trade, whilst they make every inquiry to eradicate the aforesaid evils. Should such consuls, on examination, discover any cases of smuggling, they shall immediately report them to the Chinese officers, in order that the smuggled goods may be confiscated, whatever their description or value may be; while the merchant vessels engaged in such transactions shall either be prohibited from trading, or, when their accounts are closed, be strictly required to depart, without the least favor or screening. The Chinese officers also shall take such native traders as have been engaged in smuggling, or such custom-house officers as have been sharing the spoils; and, after severe investigation, punish them according to law.

XIII. Hereafter, whenever Chinese traders shall wish to take goods to Hong-Kong for sale, they must first pay the duties, according to the new regulations, at the respective ports of Canton, Fuchau, Amoy, Ningpo, and Shanghai, whilst they obtain permits from the various custom-houses; after which, they may depart without hindrance. Should Chinese traders wish to proceed to Hong-Kong, for the purpose of laying in a stock of goods, they are also permitted to go to the offices of the Chinese authorities at the ports of Canton, Fuchau, Amoy, Ningpo, and Shanghai, and ask for a passport, taking care to pay the duties on the importation of their goods. But Chinese merchants purchasing goods at Hong-Kong, must ship them on board of Chinese vessels, which vessel must request a port-clearance from Hong-Kong, just as they obtain a permit from the five ports abovementioned, to proceed to Hong-Kong. All ships and merchants, provided with such permits, must exhibit them to the Chinese officers every time of their arrival, for inspection and examination, in order to avoid mistakes. At other ports in Kwangtung, Fukien, Chekiang, Kiangsu, such as Chapu, &c., they not being places of constant intercourse, the Chinese traders are not permitted to ask for permits to go to Hong-Kong; and if they still go, the revenue cutters must combine with the English officers to inquire into their conduct, and report.

XIV. At Hong-Kong, an English officer must be appointed; who, on the arrival of Chinese vessels at that port, for the purpose of purchasing goods, must strictly examine their passes; and, should there be any Chinese vessels or traders not provided with passes, or with passes not furnished at Canton, Fuchau, Amoy, Ningpo, and Shanghai, shall consider them as smugglers, and evaders of the duties; while a report of the circumstances shall be sent to the Chinese officers, in order to inquire into the affair. Under such an arrangement, not only will pirates be stopped in their progress, but all kinds of smuggling will be prevented.

XV. As the arrangements at Hong-Kong are certainly not like those at the five ports, and as there are no Chinese officers stationed there, should Chinese traders get in debt to the merchants of other nations, the English officers must settle the affair; but if Chinese debtors escape from Hong-Kong, and return to their native districts, where they have property and inheritances, the English consuls shall draw up an account of the matter, and report it to the Chinese officers, who shall prosecute the parties. But Chinese merchants trading abroad must also have some factory, or persons who stand as security for them. Should English merchants, without inquiring accurately, be deceived by them, the officers cannot inquire farther. With respect to English merchants at the five ports getting into debt to Chinese traders, and escaping to Hong-Kong, on the Chinese officers making a clear statement, accompanied by all the proofs, to the English officers, the latter shall act according to the fifth clause of the present supplementary treaty, in order to put the parties on an equal footing.

XVI. In a former section, it is clearly stated that, whenever Chinese carry goods to Hong-Kong for sale, or convey goods from Hong-Kong to the five ports, they must obtain permits from the various custom-houses. Now it is agreed upon, that the officers of customs at the five ports *shall monthly* make a statement of the number of permits granted, *and of the names of the vessels,* and merchants receiving them, together with the description *of goods therein specified,* whether conveyed from Hong-Kong to the various ports,

or from the various ports to Hong-Kong; which report shall be sent in to the superintendent of customs at Canton, who shall again inform the presiding officer at Hong-Kong, to examine and verify. The English officer shall also make a monthly report of the merchant vessels, resorting thither with their cargoes, to the superintendent of customs at Canton, who shall immediately communicate it to the various custom-houses, for examination and verification. Thus mutually examining and comparing, we may possibly be able to prevent the use of false permits, vain pretences, and smuggling transactions, while matters will be kept in the right channel.

XVII. Small English vessels, such as schooners and cutters, yawls, or fast-boats, of every kind, have hitherto been subject to no duties. It is now agreed upon, that all such vessels going from Hong-Kong to Canton, or from Canton to Macao, with the exception of the letters and packages, and passengers' baggage, which, according to the old regulations, were exempted from duties, if laden with merchantable goods, whether for import or export, or whether with full or half lading, even to a hundred weight of cargo, such vessels, according to their tonnage, shall pay duties, as agreed upon. But these small vessels are not to be put upon the same scale with large foreign ships. Moreover, they clear out and in several times, in the course of a month. Also, they differ from the large foreign ships which anchor at Whampoa, only; so that, if they should be called upon to pay duties, like the large foreign ships, it would necessarily be inconvenient and improper. Henceforth, therefore, these vessels shall be classed in the following manner:—The smallest of them shall be rated at seventy-five tons, and the largest of them at one hundred and fifty tons; and every time they enter port, they shall pay one mace for every ton. Those which do not amount to seventy-five tons, shall be reckoned at that rate; and those above one hundred and fifty tons shall be considered as large foreign vessels; and, according to the new regulations, pay five mace for every ton. With respect to Fuchau, and the other ports, as there are no small vessels of this kind coming and going, it is not necessary to make any regulations.

The regulations for the small vessels above alluded to, here follow:—

1st. All such English schooners, cutters, yawls, or fast-boats, must be provided with a permit from the English officers, written in English and Chinese, stating clearly their size and description, and how much is their tonnage, ready for inspection and examination.

2d. Whenever these small vessels shall arrive at the Bogue, they shall stop and report, just as the large foreign ships do. If they contain merchants' goods, they must also report themselves at the custom-house at Whampoa; and when they arrive at the provincial city, they must deposit their pass at the consul's office, in order to request permission from the superintendent of customs at Canton to unload their cargo; but, should they land their goods without such permission, then they must be dealt with according to the third section of the new commercial regulations, respecting the reporting to the custom-house of goods newly imported.

3d. When the imported goods have all been landed, and the goods for exportation all shipped, the import and export duties, together with the measurement charges, having been paid, the consul at the port shall deliver up the passport, and allow the vessel to depart.

PASSPORTS FOR CITIZENS OF THE UNITED STATES.

The following official notice, emanating from the department of state, and dated at Washington, August, 1844, is published for the benefit of citizens of the United States, who purpose going abroad:—

As citizens of the United States, going to foreign countries, may be subjected to inconvenience for the want of sufficient evidence of their national character, the secretary of state deems it proper to give notice that passports will be granted by him, gratis, to such citizens, on his being satisfied that they are entitled to receive them. To prevent delay in obtaining a passport, the application should be accompanied by such evidence as may show the applicant to be a citizen of the United States, where that fact is not already known to the department of state, and with a description of his person, embracing the following particulars, viz:—Age, —— years; stature, —— feet —— inches; forehead, ——; *eyes*, ——; nose, ——; mouth, ——; chin, ——; hair, ——; complexion, ——; *face*, ——. When the applicant is to be accompanied by his wife, children, or servants, *or females* under his protection, it will be sufficient to state the names and ages of such

persons, and their relationship to the applicant; as one passport may serve for the whole. Certificates of citizenship, or passports granted by the different states and municipal authorities in the United States, are not recognised by the officers of foreign governments; and, for the want of necessary official information as to those authorities, the ministers and consuls of the United States in foreign countries cannot authenticate such documents. It is proper to add, that persons who leave the United States without certificates, or other evidence of their citizenship, expecting to be furnished with passports by the diplomatic agents or consuls of the United States, residing in the country to be visited, are always liable to be disappointed in obtaining them, as these documents are only properly granted on the faith of some evidence that the individuals in whose favor they are applied, are entitled to them. Such testimony it is sometimes difficult, if not impracticable to procure, among strangers; and it is therefore recommended to every citizen of the United States, who purposes going abroad, to furnish himself, before leaving home, with the necessary passport.

NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

NAVIGATION OF THE NORTH ELBE.

The following information, communicated to the department of state, at Washington, (September 4, 1844,) by the charge d'affaires of the United States at Copenhagen, in Denmark, has been published by the Danish "General Customs Chamber, and College of Commerce," indicating the means which have been adopted by that government for the more secure navigation of the North Elbe.

In the North Elbe, between the Vogelsand and the Gelbsand, the following buoys have been placed for the benefit of navigation:—

1. A black buoy, No. 1, on the northeast side of the Vogelsand, in 3 fathoms water, at low tide, N. E. ½ E. from the great lighthouse at Newerk, E. N. E. from the second light-vessel in the Elbe, and W. S. W. from the beacon on Buschsand Pollu.

2. A black buoy, No. 2, on the northeast side of the Vogelsand, in about 3 fathoms at low water, bearing N. E. by N. from the great lighthouse at Newerk, N. E. by E. from the second light-vessel in the Elbe, and S. W. ½ W. from the beacon on Buchsand Pollu.

3. A white buoy, on the northeast point of the Gelbsand, in about 3 fathoms at low water, bearing N. N. E. from the great lighthouse at Newerk, N. E. from the second light-vessel in the Elbe, and S. W. by W. ½ W. from the beacon on Buchsand Pollu.

The two black buoys have a flat top, with a ring on the inside, and a white cross. On the surface, the number of the buoy, and the word "Busum," are cut, and the royal cypher is branded. The white buoy has a red top, on which the name "Busum" is painted in white, and the royal cypher is branded.

The buoys are generally removed on the 1st of December, and replaced by two black, and one white ice-buoy. They are laid down again in the beginning of March.

METHOD OF CONVERTING SALT WATER INTO FRESH.

J. S. Sleeper, the editor of the Boston Mercantile Journal, who was for many years a ship-master, gives the following account of a cheap method of converting salt water to fresh, invented many years ago, by an American ship-master. The advantages of such an invention are of great importance to mariners, and should be universally known.

"Make a wooden cover to the largest boiler in the camboose; in the centre of which insert an inverted tea-kettle, after knocking off the bail, and thus a boiler and a still-head are formed without difficulty. To the spout of the tea-kettle attach a common gun-barrel, to pass through a bucket or tub of cold water, which may be easily contrived, by changing the water in the tub occasionally. The consequence, of course, may be easily anticipated. The *steam from the boiler*, when the water is heated in the ordinary process *of cooking, collects into the tea-kettle*, and passes from thence into the gun-barrel, where *it is condensed, and may be caught* at the end of the gun-barrel, in the shape of a small *trickling stream of tolerably good fresh water.*"

CHRONOMETERS—UTILITY OF TIME-BALLS.

A writer in the London Nautical Magazine makes the following remarks, which we republish in the Merchants' Magazine, for the benefit of the nautical reader:—

"Ships lying in Plymouth Sound during the winter months, find it next to impossible to get rates for their chronometers; and to obtain the error, is scarcely less difficult. The only means, while the Thunderer remained there, was through the kindness of Mr. Cox, in allowing one of his chronometers to be taken on board occasionally, and comparing. By the error thus obtained, comparisons were given to the fleet of merchant vessels at anchor, and I had opportunities of knowing that, but for this chance, rough as it was, many of them would have gone to sea out in their longitude from ten to thirty miles. Weeks are sometimes spent by vessels from the river putting into this port, and having to wait for a wind. It would appear, therefore, that a time-ball is much required. As an instance of this, in vessels recently from England, it may be mentioned that outwards, when near the Cape de Verd islands, a British barque, going the same way, made her longitude by chronometer twenty-five miles too far to the westward. Longitude is of so much importance in navigating near these islands, and lying as they do in the direct road to India, &c., that, running by night, or in thick weather, it is not surprising that shipwrecks should happen under such circumstances. A blind confidence in chronometers has, doubtless, been the cause of many disasters; and, unless their errors be well ascertained, and the rates corroborated by daily comparisons, the Greenwich times must be uncertain, and ought to induce great caution in running. It is the dependence universally placed in these instruments that calls for every attention and facility being afforded at the ports or places where vessels resort to; and the Downs and Plymouth stand greatly in need of time-balls. It is in the winter months when these are so necessary, when the Downs is frequently full of shipping; and it is likely that a time-ball at Deal would confer a greater benefit than that at Greenwich. The advantage of such an establishment was manifest in the winter of 1842, so famous for westerly gales. At that time, the Downs was crowded; and the Thunderer was requested to make 1 o'clock, Greenwich time, by dipping an ensign from the mast-head. With a hand-lead secured to the tack, it can be done with great exactness; and wherever men-of-war are, a similar method might be usefully adopted by the senior officer's ship. Merchant vessels would then have opportunities of rating their chronometers, instead of the risk attendant on carrying them for comparing; and, since daily comparisons are indispensably necessary for their proper management, it is apparent that all ships should be supplied with no less than three chronometers."

QUARANTINE LAWS OF THE CANARY ISLANDS.

Information has been received at the department of state, at Washington, from the minister of the United States in Spain, that the following modifications of the quarantine laws of the Canary islands, in regard to the shipping from the United States, having been approved by the supreme junta of health, orders had been issued to carry them into immediate operation.

The modifications alluded to are as follows:—

1st. That all vessels arriving from ports of the United States, north of Cape Hatteras, and bringing clear bills of health, countersigned by the Spanish consul resident in the port of departure, or the collector of the same, shall be admitted to immediate pratique.

2d. That every vessel subject to quarantine shall be permitted to perform it at the port of her destination.

SHOAL DISCOVERED IN THE CHINESE SEAS.

Captain Keene, of the ship Henry Pratt, recently arrived at New York from Canton, has discovered a dangerous shoal, running north and south, about half a mile in length, apparently level with the water's edge, and having a rock, or dead tree, (many of which he saw floating about,) on the northern end. Having had calms, light airs, and variable currents for two days, he could not determine the exact position of it. By observation next day, placed it in lat. 1. 33. S., long. 107. 27. E. They lay in sight of the shoal from *9 A. M. till* 4 P. M., weather very thick and heavy; had 23 fathoms water, muddy bottom, *shoal* bearing from E. N. E. to S. W., one mile distant. No perceptible current *whilst in sight of* it—next morning, perceived a N. W. set.

RAILROAD AND CANAL STATISTICS.

SPEED OF RAILROADS.

Looking back to the year 1829, we find that, in October of that year, a prize of £500 was offered by the Liverpool and Manchester Railroad Company, for a locomotive engine successfully transporting a load equal to three times its own weight, on a nearly level road, at ten miles an hour. And in the Liverpool Times, of October 27, 1829, we are informed that the Rocket, which had secured the prize, after undergoing some alterations "greatly increasing its power, drew the enormous weight of —— tons at the rate of from eighteen to twenty miles an hour!" This compares ludicrously with performances we read of daily, of engines drawing a gross load, on level roads, exceeding 500 tons, at a speed of twelve to fifteen miles an hour.

The special train, which conveyed a party of directors and friends from London to Newcastle, on the occasion of the completion of the Darlington and Newcastle railway, accomplished the journey, 303 miles, in the short space of nine hours and thirty-two minutes; being an average of about thirty-two miles an hour, including stoppages—but, as this naked statement would supply a very inadequate idea of the actual rates of progress on some parts of the line, we now give a tabular view of the performance. The train left the Euston square station at three minutes past five in the morning, and reached Newcastle at thirty-five minutes past two in the afternoon. The following are the distances on the respective portions of the line, the time consumed in passing over each, and the rate per hour run:—

	Miles.	Hours.	Minutes.	Rate per hour.
London to Rugby, (Birmingham line,).....	83	2	11	38 miles.
Derby, (Midland counties,).....	49	1	22	36 "
Normanton, (N. Midland,).....	63	1	28	43 "
York, (York and N. Midland,).....	24	0	37	39 "
Darlington, (Gt. N. of England,).....	45	1	13	37 "
Newcastle,.....	39	1	20	29 "
Total,.....	303	8	11	

Average, 37 miles an hour. The remaining time, 1 hour and 21 minutes, was consumed in stoppages.

The distance between New York and Boston, via Brooklyn and Greenport, may be thus stated:—

Long Island Railroad—New York to Greenport,.....	94 miles.
Steamboat—Greenport to Stonington,.....	30 "
Railroad—Stonington to Providence,.....	55 "
" Providence to Boston,.....	43 "
Total,.....	222 miles.

The distance by water from Greenport to Gale's Ferry, the terminus of the Norwich and Worcester railroad, is about the same as to Stonington, 30 miles. The length of the Norwich and Worcester, and Boston and Worcester railroads, together, is 108 miles; making the distance from New York to Boston, via Norwich, about 16 miles greater than via Stonington—or 232 miles in all. The time of running, by the Norwich route, does not generally exceed that by Stonington and Providence, owing to the detention at the ferry at Providence, &c.

The time required for the performance of the distance from New York to Boston, by the Long Island route, is *ten hours*; and allotted to the different lines as follows:—

From New York to Greenport,.....	4 hours.
Crossing the Sound to the Norwich and Worcester, or Stonington road,.....	2 "
The remaining distance to Boston, on each of these lines, as now performed,	4 "

THE FIRST RAILROADS.

The first railroad introduced into the United States, was the Quincy railroad, nearly three miles in length, and leading from the wharf at the mouth of the Neponset river, to the Bunker-Hill quarry. It was built in 1826.

It is stated, in the London Quarterly Review, that, in the north of England collieries, railways, or artificial tracks, for facilitating the draught of carriages, have been employed for two hundred years, and probably much longer. They are described by Roger North, in his Life of Lord Keeper Guilford, written about 1676. To diminish friction, as well as to prevent abrasion, iron plates are said to have been nailed on the wooden rails, at Colebroke Dale, in Shropshire, about 1760; and soon after, rails of solid iron were substituted. Railways were common in all the coal and mining districts of Great Britain, early in the present century; and in 1811 there were in South Wales about one hundred and fifty miles of railway. These roads were all constructed to send heavy weights down moderate inclinations, the vehicles returning empty.

The first of the modern, or travelling railroads, that between Darlington and Stockton, chartered in 1821, was opened for passengers September 27th, 1825. The work was under the direction of Mr. Stephenson, who, in the following year, was allowed to employ his locomotive engines in the conveyance of passengers. The act incorporating the Liverpool and Manchester Railway Company received the royal assent May 5th, 1826.

EFFECT OF RAILWAYS ON CANAL PROPERTY.

In the appendix to a statement issued on behalf of the Grand Canal Company of Ireland, in the matter of the proposed railway to Cashel, there are given some curious details as to the effect of railways on canal property. Thus, the Grand Junction canal, which forms the first 90 miles of water communication between London and Birmingham, had, in the three years immediately preceding the opening of the railway, an annual revenue from tolls, ranging from £174,722 to £198,000, regularly increasing. Since the railway has been fully in operation, this revenue has varied from £121,139 to £113,012. The Rochdale canal is 33 miles long; and, throughout the entire distance, the Manchester and Leeds railway runs parallel to it. In the three years previous to the opening of the railway, the tolls ranged from £62,059 to £59,258. In the last three years, they have varied from £31,533 to £27,165. The Kennet and Avon canal, and the Wilts and Berks canal, are both affected by the Great Western railway; and the tolls of the former have fallen, since the railway was opened, from £46,703 to £32,045; and of the latter, from £19,398 to £8,477. The Forth and Clyde Navigation has gone down from £62,516 to £42,918; and the Union canal, which connects Edinburgh with the Forth and Clyde canal, has had its nett profits reduced by railways from £12,000 to £4,284. The market price of canal stock has, of course, suffered in proportion. Thus, shares in the Grand Junction canal have fallen from £330 to £148 per share; Warwick and Birmingham, from £330 to £180; Worcester and Birmingham, from £84 to £55; Kennet and Avon, from £25 to £9; and Rochdale, from £150 to £61½; while Coventry canal shares, which at one time were as high as £1,200 per share, have fallen as low as £315."

RAILROAD FREIGHTS.

It has been stated, and we have seen the statement repeated in several newspapers, says the editor of the Boston Daily Advertiser, (Nathan Hale, Esq., who is the President of the Worcester and Boston Company,) that when the Worcester railroad was finished, "a director proposed to farm out the freight of the road for $15,000 per annum." Such a statement is calculated to give an erroneous impression of the early freight business of

that road. We know not what proposition may have been made by a director, in conversation; but none such as that above stated was ever entertained by the board of directors. A much larger sum than that above named was received for freight in the first six months after the road was completed, and while the means for transacting the freight business were very imperfect.

The freight receipts of the first entire year, returned in the annual reports, amounted to $54,392; the second year, to $71,264; and the third, (1838,) $82,502. In 1839, $97,751; 1840, $86,906; 1841, $105,295; and 1842, $130,600. This statement shows that there was a steady increase in each year over the year preceding, except in 1840, the first year after the opening of the Western railroad. The nett income of each year, after deducting expenses, not including any compensation for railroads or depots, was as follows:—In 1836, $19,968; 1837, $32,804; 1838, $43,304; 1839, $54,051; 1840, $12,467; 1841, $37,757; 1842, $48,524. The diminution in the amount of receipts and nett income, on the opening of the Western railroad, was occasioned chiefly by the reduction of the rates of freight on merchandise carried beyond and brought from places beyond Worcester.

The Boston Mercantile Journal very correctly remarks:—"Cultivating sources of freight has hitherto been almost unknown among the railroads of Western New York, and yet it is calculated to add very greatly to their dividends. Take, for instance, the Eastern railroad of Massachusetts. Crowded as it is with passengers, the largest dividend it has yet given is 7 per cent per annum; and the largest dividend it promises, for one year to come, is from 8 to 9 per cent per annum. If that road carried freight, (as the Lowell and Worcester,) it would give at least 10 per cent. Follow the simile:—Take the Auburn and Rochester Railroad. Add, as you certainly can, if it is but attended to, $56,000 a year, nett income, for freight, and it will divide 10 per cent per annum, instead of 8 per cent, and add to its reserve $28,000 a year more than it now does."

VALUE OF RAILROADS.

The experience of fourteen years we have had in the use of railroads, says the Richmond Compiler, has taught us three important lessons:—First, that their cost, provided with requisite depot facilities and power, is greater; second, that their cost of maintenance, or keeping the road itself in order, is greater than was formerly estimated; and thirdly, that when constructed, and properly furnished, they are capable of accommodating a larger business, and of transporting at so small an expense as to be able, by low charges, to attract more business than was deemed possible at an early period in their history. But for this last fact, developed entirely during the period above-mentioned, or, it might be said, within the last eight years, all the railroads in Virginia, except the shorter roads for coal transportation, would have been utterly profitless, and perhaps ruinous concerns.

CANAL ACROSS THE ISTHMUS OF PANAMA

According to a communication made by M. Arago to the Academy of Sciences of the city of Paris, a contract has been entered into by the Messrs. Baring & Co., of London, with the republic of New Granada, in virtue of which, the republic is to cede to them the line required for the projected canal across the isthmus of Panama, with eighty thousand acres of land on the two banks, and four hundred thousand acres in the interior of the country. Messrs. Baring & Co. had, it is said, in the first instance, fixed the amount of toll for the navigation of the canal at the price of eighteen francs per ton, but they have reduced it to eight francs. The work, upon which from four thousand to *five thousand men are to be engaged*, is to be completed in five years.

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

EXPORTS OF THE UNITED STATES, FOR 1843.

In the September number of the Merchants' Magazine, page 271, we published the usual annual *summary* statement of the Secretary of the Treasury, of the value of the exports of the growth, produce, and manufacture of the United States, for the nine months ending on the 30th of June, 1843. The *general* statement which follows, compiled from the report of the Secretary of the Treasury, exhibits the value and the quantity of each article, when given in that document.

GENERAL STATEMENT OF DOMESTIC EXPORTS OF THE UNITED STATES.

Articles.	Quantity.	Value.
Fish—Dried or smoked, ...quintals	174,220	$381,175
Pickled, ...bbls.	29,198	116,042
" ....kegs	2,713	
Oil—Sperm, ...galls.	476,688	310,768
Whale and fish, ...	2,479,916	803,774
Whalebone, ...lbs.	898,713	257,481
Sperm candles, ...	965,073	243,368
Wood—Staves and heading, ...M.	19,765	1,026,179
Shingles, ...	20,270	
Boards, plank, &c., ...M. feet	49,754	
Hewn timber, ...tons	1,230	
Other lumber, ...		211,111
Masts and spars, ...		19,669
Oak bark, and other dye, ...		39,538
All manufactures of wood, ...		391,312
Naval Stores—Tar and pitch, ...bbls.	37,454	475,357
Rosin and turpentine, ...	188,952	
Pot and pearl ashes, ...	5,436	541,004
Skins and furs, ...		453,869
Ginseng, ...lbs.	556,533	193,870
Beef, ...bbls.	37,812	1,092,949
Tallow, ...lbs.	7,489,582	
Hides, ...No.	50,340	
Horned cattle, ...	5,181	
Pork, ...bbls.	80,310	2,120,089
Hams and bacon, ...lbs.	2,422,067	
Hogs, ...No.	7,162	
Lard, ...lbs.	24,534,217	
Butter, ...	3,406,274	508,968
Cheese, ...	3,440,144	
Horses, ...No.	2,002	212,696
Mules, ...	1,193	
Sheep, ...	13,609	29,061
Wheat, ...bushels	311,685	264,109
Flour, ...bbls.	841,474	3,763,073
Corn, ...bushels	672,608	281,749
Indian meal, ...bbls.	174,354	554,116
Rye meal, ...	21,770	65,631
Rye, oats, &c., ...		108,640
Ship bread, ...bbls.	96,572	312,232
" ....kegs	29,351	
Potatoes, ...bush.	144,991	47,757
Apples, ...bbls.	15,412	32,825
Rice, ...tcs.	106,766	1,625,796
Indigo, ...lbs.	208	198
Cotton, sea island, ...	7,515,079	.....
" other, ...	764,762,027	49,119,806
Tobacco, ...hhds.	94,454	4,550,378
Flax-seed, ...bush.	35,009	49,805

NERAL STATEMENT OF DOMESTIC EXPORTS OF THE UNITED STATES—Continued.

ss.	Quantity.	Value.
.....lbs.	1,182,565	$123,745
.....	475,727	137,532
re, household,.....		197,982
, &c.,.....		48,036
.....		39,843
y,.....		17,653
orter, ale, and cider,.....casks	88,433	44,064
" " " .....doz. bottles	14,182	
rom grain,.....galls.	89,546	21,395
.....lbs.	317,560	115,355
.....pairs	3,646	
.....	65,499	
candles,.....lbs.	1,998,357	407,105
.....	3,186,652	
.....	20,455	
o, manufactured,.....	3,404,252	278,319
l oil,.....galls.	4,185	29,434
of turpentine,.....	61,053	
sugar,.....lbs.	68,563	3,435
and cordage,.....cwts.	2,204	22,198
.....lbs.	15,366,918	492,765
ig,.....tons	13	120,923
ar,.....	7	
ails,.....lbs.	2,629,901	
astings,.....		41,189
ictures of iron,.....		370,581
from molasses,.....galls.	491,947	117,947
refined,.....lbs.	598,874	47,345
ate,.....	18,447	2,032
wder,.....	436,589	47,088
and brass,.....	.....	79,234
al drugs,.....	.....	108,438
ictures of cotton—		
ed and colored,.....	.....	358,415
e,.....	.....	2,575,049
t, yarn, &c.,.....	.....	57,312
ther,.....	.....	233,774
ictures of flax,.....	.....	326
g apparel,.....	.....	28,845
and buttons,.....	.....	23,227
,.....	.....	4,467
-tables, &c.,.....	.....	415
las, &c.,.....	.....	4,654
, and morocco skins,.....	.....	26,782
-presses and type,.....	.....	20,530
instruments,.....	.....	6,684
nd maps,.....	.....	23,643
nd stationery,.....	.....	51,391
nd varnish,.....	.....	28,994
.....	.....	7,555
and stone-ware,.....	.....	2,907
.....	.....	25,348
re,.....	.....	5,026
and lead-ware,.....	.....	7,121
ctures of marble and stone,.....	.....	8,545
d silver, and gold leaf,.....	.....	1,901
l flowers and jewelry,.....	.....	3,769
s,.....	.....	1,317
.....	.....	2,078
nd lime,.....	.....	3,883
ic salt,.....	40,678	10,988
tured articles not enumerated,.....	.....	470,261
icles,.....	.....	575,199

Value of Foreign Exports from the United States.

The following is a statement of the goods, wares, and merchandise, of the growth, produce, and manufacture of foreign countries, exported from the United States, commencing on the 1st day of October, 1842, and ending on the 30th of June, 1843:—

Merchandise free of Duty.

Articles.	Value.	Articles.	Value.
Anatomical preparations,	$161	Copper, pigs and bars,	$88,592
Crude brimstone, &c.,	2,278	" sheathing,	79,452
Barilla,	1,001	" old,	56,837
Dye-wood,	188,473	Tea,	443,601
Other wood,	22,784	Coffee,	492,860
Hides and skins,	7,528	Nutmegs,	88
Tin, pigs and bar,	25	Cloves,	111
" plates and sheets,	557	Worsted stuff goods,	491
Bullion gold,	450	Linens,	3,786
Gold, specie,	299,808	Opium,	1,912
Silver, "	1,113,104	All other articles,	362,232

Merchandise paying duties ad valorem.

Articles.	Value.	Articles.	Value.
Cloths and cassimeres,	$24,979	Other manufactures of iron,	$20,448
Blankets,	108	Brass, manufactures of,	496
Hosiery, gloves, etc.,	977	Tin, manufactures of,	1,179
Worsted stuffs,	22,820	Leather, manufactures of,	2,854
All other,	3,118	Plate glass,	210
Cotton goods, colored, etc.,	251,808	Glass, manufactures of,	164
" white,	33,998	Hats and bonnets, etc.,	25,619
Twist, yarn, etc.,	15,028	Cabinet-ware,	1,437
Hosiery,	4,881	Wood, manufactures of,	22,256
Other manufactures,	2,901	China and porcelain,	373
Silks, hosiery,	1,255	Earthen and stone-ware,	25,965
" not specified,	12,793	Plated and gilt-ware,	5,776
Silk and worsted goods,	4,929	Japan-ware,	1,172
Lace, thread and inserting,	893	Brushes,	473
" bobinet,	5,424	Paper hangings,	274
Linens, bleached and unbl'ch'd,	154,402	Slates,	896
Other manufactures of flax,	3,479	Clocks,	535
Sheeting, brown and white,	40,662	Watches, and parts,	13,193
Ticklenburgs, osnaburgs, etc.,	27,027	Gold and silver manufactures,	2,902
Other manufactures of hemp,	4,427	Buttons and moulds,	500
Clothing, ready-made,	4,192	Coffee,	3,534
" not specified,	54	Corks,	1,907
Wire, brass, or copper,	1,500	Mahogany,	38,706
Fire-arms,	2,711	Indigo,	10,197
Side-arms,	112	Wool, manufactured,	655
Knives,	924	" exceeding 7 cts. per lb.,	33,996
Needles,	495	Merchandise not enumerated,	1,889,257

Merchandise paying specific duties.

Articles.	Value.	Articles.	Value.
Sewing silk, twist, etc.,	$190	French white wines,	$4,683
Silks not specified,	192,539	Portugal "	17,041
Raw silk,	3,353	Wines of France, in bottle,	17,398
Flannels,	9,504	Portugal, in bottle,	2,550
Sail duck,	22,160	Wines of Spain,	6,396
Cotton bagging,	12,358	Spirits from grain,	5,988
Oil-cloth,	43	Brandy,	19,358
Madeira wine,	13,310	Spirits of other materials,	38,142
Sherry,	7,169	Cordials,	1,635
Champaigne,	20	Beer, ale, and porter, in bottles,	1,172
Claret, in bottles,	9,328	" " " in casks,	2,900
" *in casks,*	11,210	Vinegar,	848
Sicily wine,	2,783	Molasses,	18,518

***Merchandise paying specific duties*—Continued.**

les.	Value.	Articles.	Value.
hale, etc.,	$1,227	Manilla, and other hemps,	$472
ive, in casks,	7,869	Sisal grass, etc.,	1,198
oil,	4,170	Glass, cut,	302
l oil,	6,288	Cut chandeliers,	4,067
almonds,	400	Press glass,	200
	81,580	Glass tumblers,	556
ate,	215	Other glass,	908
brown,	69,717	Window glass,	2,500
white,	12,274	Black and green bottles,	1,313
loaf, etc.,	11,168	Demijohns,	2,910
ds,	5,615	Copper nails and spikes,	116
ts,	583	Lead, scrap,	525
	130	Pins, in packs,	1,253
	3,570	" in pounds,	338
	36,288	Muskets,	8,922
ot specified,	5,648	Wrought nails,	715
gs,	1,241	Spikes,	63
ion,	16,402	Chain cables,	708
	25,344	Chains,	183
, black,	24,327	Castings,	436
ie pepper,	242	Sad irons, etc.,	227
o,	39,135	Round or square iron,	491
	24,681	Sheet iron,	769
, ground,	108	Hoop iron,	152
or,	27	Band iron, scroll, etc.,	417
	506	Pig iron,	570
oap,	400	Bar, manufactured by rolling,	7,986
id pork,	11,993	Bar iron,	4,473
re,	3,683	Steel,	59,733
	111,790	Men's boots,	470
or pastel,	659	Men's shoes,	122
	11,649	Paper, folio and quarto,	70
	86	" med'm, demi, & foolscap,	9,119
e,	138	Sheathing paper,	501
	62	Blank books,	1
	59,154	Books, printed, in boards,	2,270
unmanufactured,	354,188	" unbound,	78
hair,	600	Salt,	10,236
and red lead,	559	Coal,	34,414
e,	61,244	Wheat,	8,092
and pack-thread,	1,153	Fish, salmon,	41
unmanufactured,	2,012	All other fish,	375

THE ICE TRADE.

as become so much of n article of commerce, that the word "ice" has taken its nder the nomenclature of the commodities of trade, in the commercial dictionaries day. Waterston, in his Encyclopædia of Commerce, published at Edinburgh, du- last year, says:—"Ice is extensively used for a variety of commercial purposes, cooling liquors, packing salmon, and as an ingredient in some confections. In climates, it is prized as a luxury; and in Bengal, and other hot countries, artificial are regularly used for its manufacture. Of late years, however, the practice has lopted of shipping it from cold to warm countries. In September, 1833, a cargo shipped at Boston, was discharged at Calcutta. The price at which it was offered . per lb.; while the material made by an artificial process could not be sold under was packed in solid masses, within chambers of double planking, with a layer of tan, or bark, between them; but the Americans expected, by improving methods ing, to lower the price of future consignments one-half. The whole quantity ship- s one hundred and eighty tons, of which about sixty wasted on the voyage, and *on the passage up the river to* Calcutta, and in stowing away. Various other ves- *th similar cargoes, have since* arrived at India. It is also exported from the United

States to Brazil, and other countries. Ice, for the use of the fisheries, is now admitted duty free into Coleraine, Londonderry, and Sligo."

Since 1833, the trade has increased greatly; and, from the small beginning at Boston, has extended to other northern ports; and a considerable quantity is now annually shipped at New York. Great improvements have been made in packing, so that the wasteage is much reduced. Large quantities are also shipped to New Orleans, and other southern ports; and the home consumption of ice has augmented largely. We have no means at hand of ascertaining the quantity consumed in New York; but, since the introduction of Croton water, it must be immense. Salmon, from the state of Maine, and cod and other fish, from Boston, are packed in ice, and sent over the various railroad routes to the interior of western New England, and as far north as Buffalo.

The export of ice from Boston, for the month ending August 31, is as follows:—

To Foreign Ports.	Tons.	Coastwise Ports.	Tons.
Bombay and Calcutta,	442	New Orleans,	2,380
Liverpool,	759	Charleston,	300
Rio Janeiro,	268		
Barbadoes,	230½	Total for August,	2,680
Trinidad,	127	Total since June 1,	3,901
		Total, both foreign and coastwise,	6,294½
Total for August,	1,626½		
Total since June 1,	2,39[illegible]		

EXPORT OF COTTON GOODS FROM ENGLAND.

QUANTITY OF MANUFACTURED COTTON GOODS EXPORTED DURING FIRST SIX MONTHS OF 1843-44.

	Plain Calicoes.		Printed and Dyed	
	1843.	1844.	1843.	1844.
Countries.	Yards.	Yards.	Yards.	Yards.
Barbary and Morocco,	114,390	14,800	17,982	5,000
Brazil, and other ports of S. America,	19,759,110	27,517,811	16,640,591	20,374,286
British West Indies,	12,2[illegible]3,986	6,086,237	9,467,[illegible]54	6,074,576
British N. A. colonies,	4,948,187	7,353,145	4,676,107	6,[illegible]72,253
Belgium,	368,788	627,660	1,225,003	1,227,895
Coast of Africa, exclusive of Cape,	2,843,053	1,024,157	9,289,661	2,626,831
Chili and Peru,	5,621,716	4,008,367	6,766,647	7,090,633
Cape of Good Hope,	2,007,541	891,138	1,695,507	1,052,607
Colombia,	1,404,180	1,114,312	2,610,194	1,743,610
Denmark,	74,039	609,620	12,938	206,531
Egypt,	4,121,942	7,345,504	149,783	1,069,166
France,	2,467,749	421,651	724,970	834,522
Foreign West Indies,	3,883,624	3,146,466	4,533,013	5,059,308
Gibraltar,	9,456,656	5,777,403	4,534,183	5,593,521
Hanse Towns, Mecklenburg, &c.,	9,291,975	10,110,516	17,565,003	16,095,383
Hanover,	20,000	30,798	9,000	3,003
Holland,	14,593,419	7,730,080	5,679,597	7,053,108
India,	92,542,740	62,268,964	12,523,665	10,458,494
China,		46,546,517		2,716,365
Malta, and Ionian isles,	3,379,754	1,629,739	1,756,383	836,219
Mauritius and Batavia,	838,861	1,022,898	690,492	970,493
Mexico,	1,740,608	184,413	3,328,924	1,404,684
New Holland,	1,660,656	1,034,882	2,485,077	604,031
Naples and Sicily,	3,499,727	2,953,371	2,792,448	3,958,600
Prussia,	1,188	2,620	529	140
Portugal, Madeira, Azores, and Cape de Verds,	13,135,400	12,551,468	6,488,030	7,706,487
Russia,	529,982	533,507	40,242	134,940
Sweden and Norway,	333,453	355,892	377,438	264,225
Spain,	17,909	.....	18,755	.....
Sardinia, Tuscany, &c.,	11,752,465	6,933,744	8,750,289	7,645,502
Trieste, Venice, and Austrian ports,	3,965,379	3,485,909	1,690,993	1,270,189
Turkey and Levant,	24,698,287	29,108,204	16,090,529	26,931,709
United States of America,	1,953,857	4,300,378	3,562,312	5,096,137
Total,	253,318,621	276,722,671	145,296,119	159,980,[illegible]

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

THE MERCHANTS OF OLD ENGLAND.

BY THE HON. GEORGE SYDNEY SMITH, M. P.

The land, it boasts its titled hosts—they could not vie with these,
The merchants of old England, the Seigneurs of the seas—
In the days of great Elizabeth, when they sought the western main,
Maugre and spite the Cæsar's might, and the menaces of Spain.
And the richly freighted argosy, and the good galleon went forth,
With the bales of Leeds or Lincoln, and the broadcloths of the North;
And many a veteran mariner would speak 'midst glistening eyes,
Of the gain of some past voyage, and the hazards of emprize;
Or, in the long night-watches, the wond'rous tale was told,
Of isles of fruit and spices, and fields of waving gold.
And the young and buoyant-hearted would oft that tale renew,
And dream their dearest dream should be, their wildest hope come true.
So, with brave hearts, and dauntless, they sailed for the unknown;
For each he sought his inmost thought, and a secret of his own.
And reason fair, how wild soe'er had been each young belief—
O reason fair! had they to dare with Raleigh for a chief!
Then, when long years had glided by, in those colonies they made,
The same free spirit which was theirs, in those plantations stayed.
A refuge here, and shelter, full many an exile found,
When the old world grew in dotage, and by priests and kings was bound.
And in some far savannah, where man had never been,
They came with thoughts as simple as was that savage scene—
Or in the lonely prairie they kept their solemn tryst,
When sacred word and hymn were heard, and the equal laws of Christ.
And the young and strong Republic was by these in virtue bred,
She was cradled in adventure, she was nursed in good men's dread.
The young and strong republic that has filled the world with fame,
And with great praise and marvel of the Anglo-Saxon name.
And well she shows her origin in the deeds that she has done,
With her Franklin, and her Whitney, and her hero Washington.
Then glory to the fathers who had such sons as these,
The merchants of old England, the Seigneurs of the seas!

The land, it boasts its titled hosts—they could not vie with these,
The merchants of old England, the Seigneurs of the seas.
In the days of the Guelphic Georges, when the dream had come again,
Of a treasure land, where a daring hand had only to glean and gain.
And all that, in past times, our forefathers had told,
Of the gorgeous Mississippi, and the southern seas of gold,
Was now outdone, where the eastern sun poured its fire in lava streams,
Through bold Dupleix's, Labourdonnaye's, and Lally's conquest schemes;
But little they knew what he could do, when, on fair Plassy's vale,
The bright-eyed young adventurer flung his sword into the scale;
And, like the Roman legend, the fate of nations swayed,
With the glory of the impulse, and the greatness of the blade.

For the fiat had gone forth, and the Orient was to be
The slave of a northern mistress—the island of the free.
And of the three great races that met in conflict there,
The fierce Mahratta swordsman, and the Mussulman Ameer,
Was high above all standards, the Company's displayed,
Was high above all war-cries, the war-cry of the Trade.
And from that hour there grew the power, was made by no human hand,
But as erst was given, in grace from Heaven, to a free and chosen land.
For, lo! by a sign that was divine, there were revealed once more,
The greatness, and the courage, and the soul that were of yore—
And one vast mind, itself combined, the ancient and the new,
The ardor of the Christian, and the calm of the Hindoo.
And after Hastings, still there came a great and glorious line,
Of proconsul on proconsul, to tend his high design—
Of counsellors and heroes, whose names shall live for aye,
With the Wellesley of Mysore, and the Wellesley of Assaye.
Then glory to the merchants, who had such chiefs as these,
The merchants of old England, the Seigneurs of the seas!

The land, it boasts its titled hosts—they cannot vie with these,
The merchants of old England—the Seigneurs of the seas,
In the days of Queen Victoria; for they have borne her away
From the fair Atlantic islands, to the islands of Cathay,
And o'er one-sixth of all the earth, and over all the main,
Like some good fairy, freedom marks and blesses her domain.
And of the mighty empires, that arose, and ruled, and died,
Since on the sea, his heritage, the Tyrian looked in pride,
Not Carthage, with her Hannibal, nor Athens, when she bore
Her bravest and her boldest to the Syracusan shore,
While the words of Alcibiades yet echoed wide and far,
"Where are corn-fields and are olive-grounds, the Athenian's limits are."
And in each trireme was many a dream of the west, and its unknown bliss,
Of the maidens of Iberia, and the feasts of Sybaris—
Not in those younger ages, when St. Mark's fair city ran
Her race of fame and frailty—each monarch's courtesan—
Not Lusia in her palmier hour, in those commercial days,
When Vasco sailed for Calicut, and Camoens sang his praise—
Not Spain, with all her Indies, the while she seemed to fling
Her fetters on the waters, like the oriental king—
Not one among the conquerors that are, or ever were,
In wealth, or fame, or grandeur, with England may compare.
But not of this our sovereign thought, when, from her solemn throne,
She spoke of the poor, and what they endure, in her low and thrilling tone;
And offered a prayer that trade might bear relief through the starving land,
To the strong man's weakened arm, and his wan and worklees hand.
And by the power that was her dower, might commerce once more be
The helper of the helpless, and the saviour of the free.
Then glory to the merchants, who shall do such deeds as these,
The merchants of old England, the Seigneurs of the seas!

GUANO, AND THE GUANO TRADE.

We brought together a number of facts touching the progress of this new branch of commerce, in the September number of this Magazine, and now add some additional information on the subject, derived from a variety of authentic sources.

According to Liebig, the distinguished German chemist, guano has been used by the Peruvians as a manure, since the twelfth century; and its value was considered so inestimable, that the government of the Incas issued a decree, by which capital punishment was inflicted upon any person found destroying the fowl on the Guano islands. Overseers were also appointed over each province, for the purpose of insuring them further protection. Under this state of things, the accumulation of the excrements may well have taken place. All these regulations are, however, now abandoned. Rivero states that the annual consumption of guano, for the purposes of agriculture, amounts to 40,000 fanegas. The increase of crops obtained by the use of the guano, is very remarkable. According to the same authority, the crop of potatoes is increased forty-five times by means of it, and that of maize thirty-five times. The manner of applying the manure is singular. Thus, in Africa, where so much pepper (capsicum baccatum) is cultivated, each plant is manured three times. First, upon the appearance of the roots; second, that of the leaves; and lastly, upon the formation of the fruit—(Humboldt.) From this, it will be observed, the Peruvians follow the plan of the Chinese, in manuring the plant rather than the soil. The composition of guano points out how admirably it is fitted for manure—for not only does it contain ammoniacal salts in abundance, but also those inorganic constituents which are indispensable for the development of plants.

The most recent analysis is that of Volckel, who found it to consist of—Urate of ammonia, 9.0; oxalate of ammonia, 10.6; oxalate of lime, 7.0; phosphate of ammonia, 6.0; phosphate of magnesia and ammonia, 2.6; sulphate of potash, 5.5; sulphate of soda, 3.8; sal-ammoniac, 4.2; phosphate of lime, 14.3; clay and sand, 4.7; organic subetances not estimated, containing 12 per cent of matter, insoluble in water, soluble salts of iron, in small quantity, water, 32.3—total, 100.0.

Justus Liebig says that the importation of one hundred weight of guano is equal to the importation of eight hundred weight of wheat—so astonishingly fertile is this manure. This is encouraging to the ten millions of oat-meal livers of Great Britain, as immense quantities of it are now coming from Africa.

We learn, from a late London paper, that the ship Leo recently arrived at the port of Berwick, with a complete cargo of guano, from Chincha, or the Bug islands. The captain states that he loaded his vessel, (about 426 tons,) in forty-eight hours, the guano lying as thick as 300 feet; and that, had it not been for the trouble of stowing, it might have been done in four or five hours. The guano was conveyed to the hold of the vessel by means of a canvass hose. The Bug islands are three in number, about fifteen miles off Piseo, in latitude 14 deg. 23 m. S., longitude 76 deg. 13 m. There is a rock in the centre of the middle island, which is half a mile in diameter. The rock stands as a sort of landmark in the ocean. The rock appeared to be a kind of whitened boulder, so hard that the crew were unable to procure a ragment of it. The captain visited only two of the islands, and states that the air was very strongly impregnated with ammonia. The coast of Peru abounds with guano. He describes labor in general to be plentiful, and to be had at about 3*s.* per day, English money; but he had to wait a month for his "turn," as there were thirty vessels there. The population is principally a mixed race of Spaniards and Peruvians, speaking Spanish; and, in the present undisturbed state of the country, says the captain, "*fond of plunder.*"

A *late British paper thus sums up the prospect of the guano trade:*—

"*As guano is likely to come into general use as an available and profitable manure, an idea may be formed of the quantity* ultimately required. There are, for instance, in Eng

land and Wales, 25,000,000 acres of land under cultivation, and almost 16,000,000 in Ireland and Scotland. Supposing, however, that guano be applied, ultimately, to only one-twelfth of this quantity, what a trade would thus be created! Taking it for granted that an acre would require about two hundred weight and a half, 600,000 tons annually would be required; while the import of this quantity would employ some 1,200 vessels, of 500 tons each."

An intelligent gentleman of Boston, who has lately visited the different islands on the west coast of Africa, at which guano is obtained, publishes in the columns of the Boston Daily Advertiser, for the benefit of commercial men, some account of the extent to which the guano trade is carried, by the English merchants, who have realized speedy and ample fortunes. As the information embraced in this communication appears to be authentic, derived as it is from personal knowledge, and an authentic source, we have concluded to give it below, in the writer's own words:—

"Guano is now a new article here, generally supposed to be the excrement of birds. Such, however, is not the fact. It is the decomposition of animal matter, formed by the seals, in their periodical visits to reefs or rocks, slightly elevated above the surface, from time immemorial, for the purpose of shedding and pupping. The penguin has also made it a rookery. Nature being frail, in the ordinary course of events, the carcasses of both have been deposited here, and layer upon layer has been accumulating, and decomposition taking place, until, on one peculiar island, it is found in a solid mass, of ninety feet in depth, and three-quarters of a mile in circumference. Speculators and theorists have made four or five kinds, and given a different appearance to each, as interest swayed them. There are, however, but two kinds, the pure and impure, both strongly impregnated with ammonia—the former, moist and adhesive, of the color and consistency of common clay, which is not decomposed; the latter of a light brown, perfectly decomposed, and appearing like pulverized mortar. The article, in its purity, can only be obtained in those parallels of latitude where it never rains; and the formation of the island must be peculiar, as it requires a uniform and fervid heat to act upon it. Its uses are various, both for chemical and agricultural purposes, and appears as though designed by an all-wise Providence for the purpose of resuscitating worn-out and exhausted soil. But to the islands:—The first in order is Possession, a barren waste of sand, its arid surface strewed with the bones of seal, and presenting every appearance of having been lately visited for guano. The next in order are the islands of Shark, Seal, and Penguin, in Angra, Pequena bay; at the former of which we saw some six British vessels loading. The article, however, was impure, being obtained in the chasms and fissures of rocks; consequently not decomposed.

"We next proceeded to Ichaboe. Here a scene met our view for which we were perfectly unprepared. A large fleet of English shipping, thirty-six in number, of the largest class, clustering about a mound of earth, isolated in its position, barren on its surface, but teeming with this new substance, guano, in all its purity. The appearance of the island is similar to a tea-cup inverted, as to natural position The forest of masts would incline the stranger to suppose he was wending his way to a thriving commercial seaport; but the eye wanders in vain for the cheerful, quiet abode of man. Desolation bounds the prospect on one side, and the broad expanse of ocean on the other. One little spot alone appears—a human bee-hive—the centre of all this attraction—the island of Ichaboe. It presents the appearance of a huge fortress, with all its ramparts and abutments—each party, as they work in, leaving their walls perpendicular; and, so hard is the substance, it is necessary to use not only the pickaxe, but the beetle and wedge. Through the sides of the pits, as they are termed, the remains of both seal and fowl are found protruding, and the writer of this article has taken penguin eggs, in a perfect state of preservation, seventy feet from the surface. Upon our arrival here, a stranger, the first unfolding the stars and stripes, some difficulty occurred in loading. This, however, was speedily remedied, and we started, homeward-bound, by way of the West Indies, as per advice of consul at the Cape of Good Hope, to ascertain the consumption of it among the islands; and it was ascertained that the planters were using it extensively. American vessels, however, are not allowed to land it in either the English or French West Indies, but planters can readily be found who will charter a vessel, and follow her to a Danish port, and there receive her cargo at a high price. The fact is, that John Bull has caught Brother Jonathan napping, for the last year, in this new article of traffic—and in one year's time, the pure article will be exhausted. Written documents can be found, by inquiring of L. Whitney, Globe Hotel, which will satisfy the most skeptical."

No mention is made of guano in M'Culloch's Commercial Dictionary; and in Wom-

ston's more recent Encyclopædia of Commerce, we find only the following brief allusion to the article:—

"Guano, a highly concentrated manure, is a dark yellow substance, of a strong ambrosial odor, found in deposits 50 or 60 feet thick, and of considerable extent, upon the coasts of Peru, the islands of Chincha, near Piseo, and other places more south. It is said to be an accumulation of excrements of herons, flamands, and other birds inhabiting these localities. This substance has of late (1842) become an object of considerable trade."

The London Agricultural Gazette says that "contracts for Ichaboe (African) guano have been signed, to be delivered from March to the middle of May, 1845, at 6*l.* 6*s.* per ton, at Liverpool. The last news from the island of Ichaboe was, that one hundred ships were then waiting their turn to load. It is thought, by some, that in twelve months the stock of guano on Ichaboe island will be exhausted; but it is said there are other islands equally valuable. If that was the case, why should so many ships wait so patiently their turn to be laden? The supply of African guano here, (Liverpool,) is very liberal. It is calculated by many importers that guano will be bought on better terms the next three months, than will happen again for years; for the number of ships on their passage, to load at Ichaboe, and those returning laden, will overstock the market, as the season will be over before they can arrive.

MERCANTILE QUALIFICATIONS,

ONE HUNDRED AND EIGHTY YEARS AGO.

In looking over a lot of old English books, recently imported by D. Appleton & Co., we fell in with a little work of one hundred and seventy-five 18mo. pages, with this title:—"England's Treasure by Foreign Trade; or, the Balance of our Foreign Trade is the Rule of our Treasure. Written by Thomas Mun, Merchant. First published in 1664." The edition before us bears the imprint, "London: Printed for Thomas Horne, at the South Entrance of the Royal Exchange. 1718." The volume, divided into twenty-one chapters, it appears from the preface, was addressed to the writer's son. The views embraced in Chapter I., which treats of "*The Qualities which are required in a perfect Merchant of Foreign Trade,*" are as elevated, to say the least, as those entertained by merchants in this year of our Lord, eighteen hundred and forty-four, with all its increased wisdom and accomplishments. In illustration of this remark, and as a specimen of the mercantile spirit and literature of the seventeenth century, we copy the chapter entire:—

THE QUALITIES WHICH ARE REQUIRED IN A PERFECT MERCHANT OF FOREIGN TRADE.

The love and service of our country consisteth not so much in the knowledge of those duties which are to be performed by others, as in the skilful practice of that which is done by ourselves; and therefore, my son, it is now fit that I say something of the merchant, which I hope, in due time, shall be thy vocation. Yet herein are my thoughts free from all ambition, although I rank thee in a place of so high estimation; for the merchant is worthily called the steward of the kingdom's stock, by way of commerce with other nations, a work of no less reputation than trust, which ought to be performed with great skill and conscience, that so the private gain may ever accompany the public good. And because the nobleness of this profession may the better stir up thy desires and endeavors to obtain those abilities which may effect it worthily, I will briefly set down the excellent qualities which are required in a perfect merchant.

1. He ought to be a good penman, a good arithmetician, and a good accountant, by that noble order of debtor and creditor, which is used only amongst merchants—also, to be expert in the order and form of charter-parties, bills of lading, invoices, contracts, bills of exchange, and policies of insurance.

2. He ought to know the measures, weights, and moneys of all foreign countries, especially where we have trade; and the moneys not only by their several denominations, but also by their intrinsic *values in weight* and fineness, compared with the standard of this *kingdom; without which, he cannot* well direct his affairs.

3. He ought to know the customs, tolls, taxes, impositions, conducts, and other charges *upon all manner of merchandise* exported or imported to and from the said foreig *countries.*

4. He ought to know in what several commodities each country abounds, and what be the wares which they want, and how and from whence they are furnished with the same.

5. He ought to understand, and to be a diligent observer of the rates of exchanges by bills, from one state to another, whereby he may the better direct his affairs, and remit over and receive home his moneys to the most advantage possible.

6. He ought to know what goods are prohibited to be exported or imported in the said foreign countries, lest otherwise he should incur great danger and loss in the ordering of his affairs.

7. He ought to know upon what rates and conditions to freight his ships, and insure his adventures from one country to another, and to be well acquainted with the laws, orders, and customs of the insurance office, both here and beyond the seas, in the many accidents which may happen upon the damage or loss of ships or goods, or both these.

8. He ought to have knowledge in the goodness and in the prices of all the several materials which are required for the building and repairing of ships, and the divers workmanships of the same, as also for the masts, tackling, cordage, ordnance, victuals, munition, and provisions of many kinds; together with the ordinary wages of commanders, officers, and mariners—all which concern the merchant, as he is an owner of ships.

9. He ought, (by the divers occasions which happen, sometimes in the buying and selling of one commodity, and sometimes in another,) to have indifferent, if not perfect knowledge, in all manner of merchandise or wares; which is to be, as it were, a man of all occupations and trades.

10. He ought, by his voyaging on the seas, to become skilful in the art of navigation.

11. He ought, as he is a traveller, and sometimes abiding in foreign countries, to attain to the speaking of divers languages, and to be a diligent observer of the ordinary revenues and expenses of foreign princes, together with their strength both by sea and land, their laws, customs, policies, manners, religions, arts, and the like; to be able to give account thereof, in all occasions, for the good of his country.

12. Lastly, although there be no necessity that such a merchant should be a great scholar, yet is it (at least) required that in his youth he learn the Latin tongue; which will the better enable him in all the rest of his endeavors.

Thus have I briefly showed thee a pattern for thy diligence, the merchant in his qualities; which, in truth, are such, and so many, that I find no other profession which leadeth into more worldly knowledge. And it cannot be denied but that their sufficiency doth appear, likewise, in the excellent government of state at Venice, Luca, Genoa, Florence, the Low Countries, and divers other places of Christendom. And in those states, also, where they are least esteemed, yet is their skill and knowledge often used by those who sit in the highest places of authority. It is, therefore, an act beyond rashness in some, who do disenable their counsel and judgment, (even in books printed,) making them incapable of those ways and means which do either enrich or impoverish a commonwealth, when, in truth, this is only effected by the mystery of their trade, as I shall plainly show in that which followeth. It is true, indeed, that many merchants here in England, finding less encouragement given to their profession than in other countries, and seeing themselves not so well esteemed as their noble vocation requireth, and according to the great consequence of the same, do not therefore labor to attain unto the excellency of their profession; neither is it practised by the nobility of this kingdom, as it is in other states, from the father to the son, throughout their generations, to the great increase of their wealth, and maintenance of their names and families; whereas the memory of our richest merchants is suddenly extinguished—the son, being left rich, scorneth the profession of his father; conceiving more honor to be a gentleman, (although but in name;) to consume his estate in dark ignorance and excess, than to follow the steps of his father, as an industrious merchant, to maintain and advance his fortunes.

IMPRISONMENT FOR DEBT IN ENGLAND.

It affords us pleasure to record, in the pages of the Merchants' Magazine, every advance made in the progress of liberal and humane principles. England has at length done her duty—erasing from her statute-books one of the barbarisms of the past, by abolishing *imprisonment* for debt. It is a crying shame that America should be behind her Anglo-Saxon progenitors across the Atlantic, by permitting, in a large majority of the states, *imprisonment* for poverty. Let it be remembered, that in 1844, the insolvent bill, abolishing *imprisonment* for debt, passed, with the general concurrence of the British Parliament. "The principle of this bill," said Sir J. Graham, "is, that every debtor shall be released

upon the surrender of his property, and this without any imprisonment, in cases where the debt does not exceed twenty pounds; and in debts, also, of whatever amount, if he apply before execution, whilst at liberty. What more, indeed," said Sir J. Graham, "ought the creditor to require, "than that the debtor should give up all his property? He might, indeed, have none to give up; but it was surely most unjust, when that was the case, to apply the torture of imprisonment, in order to extract payment from his friends. The highest legal authorities were in favor of the bill; so was the experience of Scotland, where its principle had worked extremely well. Under that principle, shopkeepers would exercise more caution, and the poorer classes be relieved from many extortionate practices."

The twenty pound clause was introduced to put an end to the extortions under the tally system, and the loan societies. It remains to be added, that the new act contains a further clause, of very great importance; namely, that after the final order of the court, to be given on the fair surrender of the present property of the debtor, his further acquired property is not to be taken. The words of the act, upon this point, are as follows:—

"*And be it enacted*, That, in construing this act, the word 'property' shall mean and include all the real and personal estate, and effects of the petitioner, within this realm and abroad, (except the wearing apparel, beds, and implements, not exceeding the value of twenty pounds,) and all the future estate, right, title, and trust of such petitioner, in or to any real or personal estate and effect, within this realm or abroad, which such petitioner may purchase, or which may revert, descend, or be devised or bequeathed to him, or come to him, *before he shall have obtained the final order*, and all debts due to such petitioner before he shall have received the final order."

This, and the non-imprisonment in execution as to all debts not exceeding twenty pounds, are the two main alterations of the former law.

THE QUESTION FOR ACCOUNTANTS.

To the Editor of the Merchants' Magazine:—

Sir—Having, according to previous arrangement, deferred the presentation of my solution to the question above named, to the 20th ult., in order to afford sufficient time to any of your or my correspondents to consider, and, if deemed prudent, to *qualify* their former attempts on this subject; and having, to this date, neither seen nor heard of any, to such an effect, I now present the *exact* solution.

In doing so, I deem it proper to remark that, where mercantile transactions are conducted on so *limited* a scale as those in question, I have excluded the introduction of *company books;* and have consequently embodied the solitary transaction dependent thereon, in *books proper*—the result, however, being of necessity the *same*.

How a *few* of my correspondents have contrived to cheat themselves into the belief that my intention was that Caleb W—— and I should share *proportionally* in the gain or loss which may occur, notwithstanding the fact, that I distinctly stated, that we were to share *equally*—a particular which I endeavored carefully to impress, by italicising, as I do now, the word which expressed those conditions;—how, I repeat, any of my correspondents, under such circumstances, could have thus conceived, is, to my judgment, not less extraordinary, than that they should have failed to discover the non-existence of any other mode of justifying these conditions, than that of charging Caleb W—— with *half* of the extra stock put into company by me; so as to place our claims on an *equality*. In a word, these considerations, blended with others, not now prudent or necessary for me to explain, have led me to the inference that our mercantile community *still* need a concise, *self-instructing*, and practical treatise on the subject of book-keeping; comprising, amongst other particulars, all *possible* cases in partnerships and their dissolutions. Under such an impression, I propose to undertake the effort; in which, shall I have the mortification to fail, I shall then console myself with the cheering reflection that I meant no evil; that I contemplated good; and that I fought the battle, though I missed the victory.

In conclusion, I admit that a communication, signed "F. L. R.," from Baltimore, just received, has given the solution to the question—a slight discrepancy excepted; namely, that of his having substituted, for the appropriate and indispensable title *stock*, the name of the *acting* merchant. This practice, for various reasons, not now necessary to be discussed, is founded on an incorrect and injudicious view of the nature of debtor and creditor; as, on some future occasion, I shall show. "D. R.," of 262 Broadway, has given a true solution; so has "E. L. H." I am, sir, very respectfully,

Your obliged and obedient servant,

J. W. WRIGHT.

JOURNAL.		DAY-BOOK.	
Drs.		May 1, 1844.	
Stock, (for what I owe,)....	$5,000 00		
Cash,.....	5,000 00	Borrowed from John Goodman,....	$5,000 00
	$10,000 00		
Crs.			
J. Goodman,.....	$5,000 00		
Stock, (for what I possess,)	5,000 00		
	$10,000 00		
Drs.		May 5.	
Blue cloth in company,....	$3,600 00		
Caleb W.,.....	200 00		
	$3,800 00	Bought, for cash, 20 pieces blue cloth, at $100 per piece. Put them into company with Caleb W., who advances 16 pieces. Our stock not to be increased; each partner to share *equally* in the gain or loss during trade. I, as manager, to receive 5 per cent on the sales,.....	$3,800 00
Crs.			
Cash,.....	$2,000 00		
Caleb W.,.....	1,800 00		
	$3,800 00		
Dr.		May 8.	
Cash,.....	$640 00		
Cr.			
Blue cloth in company,....	$640 00	Sold, for cash, 8 pieces of blue cloth in company, at $80 pr. piece,	$640 00
Drs.		May 12.	
Blue cloth, *proper*,.....	$1,400 00		
Caleb W., for his part, and half loss,.....	1,496 00	Dissolved partnership with Caleb W., and divided the unsold blue cloth *equally* between us. He takes 14 pcs. at cost, equal to $1,400 00	
Profit and loss for my loss,.	96 00		
	$2,992 00	I take to my own account 14 pieces,. 1,400 00	
Crs.		My commission on $640, (the sales,). 32 00	
Blue cloth in company, for am't drawn out, and loss,	$2,960 00	The gross loss on the sales is..... 160 00	
Commission,.....	32 00		
	$2,992 00		$2,992 00
		May 15.	
Dr.		Sent, by order of J. Goodman, linen bought for cash, to the amount of..... $1,931 22	
J. Goodman,.	$2,000 00	Paid for charges, at shipping,..... 20 00	
Crs.		$1,951 22	
Cash,.....	$1,951 22	My com., at 2½ p. ct., 48 78	
Commission,.....	48 78		$2,000 00

LEGER.

1844.	Dr. Stock,		1844.	Contra Cr.	
May 1.	To sundries, for what I owe,.....	$5,000 00	May 1.	By sundries, for what I possess,.....	$5,000 00
	To profit and loss, for my nett loss in trade,	15 22		By balance for decrease in capital,.....	15 22
		$5,015 22			$5,015 22
	Dr. Cash,			Contra Cr.	
May 1.	To sundries,.....	$5,000 00	May 5.	By sundries, paid for blue cloth,.....	$2,000 00
" 8.	To cloth in company,..	640 00	" 15.	By J. Goodman, for linen, &c.,.....	1,951 22
		$5,640 00		By balance on hands,.	1,688 78
					$5,640 00
	Dr. J. Goodman,			Contra Cr.	
May 15.	To sundries, for amount linen, &c.,.....	$2,000 00	May 1.	By sundries, borrowed from you,.....	$5,000 00
	To balance due to you,	3,000 00			$5,000 00
		$5,000 00			
	Dr. Blue cloth in co.			Contra Cr.	
May 5.	To sundries, for. pcs. 36	$3,600 00	May 8.	By cash, sold... pcs. 8	$640 00
	36	$3,600 00	" 12.	By sund. drawn out, and loss on part sold, " 28	2,960 00
				36	$3,600 00
	Dr. Caleb W.,			Contra Cr.	
May 5.	To sundries, for 2 pcs. blue cloth, at $100 per piece, ...	$200 00	May 5.	By sundries, for your half of 36 pcs. broad-cloth, at $100 per piece,.....	$1,800 00
May 12.	To sundries, for 14 pcs. blue cl'th, & your loss,	1,496 00			
	To balance due to you,	104 00			$1,800 00
		$1,800 00			
	Dr. Bl. cl'th (*proper*,)			Contra Cr.	
May 12.	To sundries, for. pcs. 14	$1,400 00		By balance on hands,..... pcs. 14	$1,400 00
	14	$1,400 00		14	$1,400 00
	Dr. Profit and Loss,			Contra Cr.	
May 12.	To sundries, lost on blue cloth,.....	$96 00		By commission,.....	$80 78
		$96 00		By stock lost in trade,.	15 22
					$96 00
	Dr. Commission,			Contra Cr.	
	To profit and loss,.....	$80 78	May 12.	By sundries, gained on blue cl'th in company,	$32 00
		$80 78	" 15.	By J. Goodman, on linen, &c.,.....	48 78
					$80 78
	Dr. Balance,			Contra Cr.	
	To cash,.....	$1,688 78		By J. Goodman, ...	$3,000 00
	To blue cloth (proper) on hands,.....	1,400 00		By Caleb W.,.....	104 00
	To st'ck for decr. in cap.	15 22			$3,104 00
		$3,104 00			

THE BOOK TRADE.

1.—*Parker's Semaphoric Signal Book, in Three Parts; containing the Marine Telegraph Code of Signals, with the Appendix; the United States Telegraph Vocabulary, embracing Marryatt's New Code of Signal Numbers, as adopted by the British, French, Spanish, Dutch, American, and European Merchant Vessels, and adopted at Lloyd's Coffee-House, London, and used by the Liverpool and Holyhead Line of Telegraphs. To which is annexed, The Names of Two Thousand sail of American Vessels, who are supplied with the Marine Telegraph Flags, designating Telegraph Numbers and Signal Books; among whom are included the Government Vessels of War, and Revenue Cutters.* Third edition. By JOHN R. PARKER, Sole Proprietor. New York: 1844.

Mr. Parker's copious title-page, which we have quoted entire, sufficiently indicates the design of this volume. The subject is one of great importance to the mercantile interest of New York; and, indeed, of the United States. The system of Mr. Parker has long been in successful operation in Boston, and several other ports in the United States, and has given entire satisfaction to all concerned. The author has devoted more than twenty years to the subject, and the result of his time and labor is such as to command for it the universal acceptance and adoption of the entire commercial community. We have published, in a former part of this Magazine, a paper on the subject, from one who thoroughly understands the whole system; which we commend to the notice of all concerned in an enterprise which has for its object the preservation of life and property—interests that are too highly appreciated in this community to require the enforcement of the periodical press. We are quite sure that Mr. Parker will meet with a hearty response from the intelligent merchants of New York, to whom we most cordially commend him, and his invaluable system.

2.—*The Literary Remains of the Rev. Jonathan Maxcy, D. D., Second President of Brown University, R. I., late President of Union College, N. Y., and of the South Carolina College. With a Memoir of his Life.* By ROMEO ELTON, D. D. New York: A. V. Blake.

The writings of Dr. Maxcy, embraced in the present volume, are surpassed by few in intrinsic excellence and value, and must take an elevated rank among the productions of American literature. "The intelligent and cultivated reader will perceive in them genius, a refined taste, beauty of imagery, and vigor of thought and diction. They breathe a liberal and catholic spirit, resulting from deep piety, and high mental endowments. In the language of his biographer, "he could not substitute the Shibboleth of a party in the place of love to God, and the practical exhibition of the Christian virtues." The volume consists principally of sermons, and orations or addresses delivered before literary and classical associations; and discusses subjects of vital interest with great force, ability, and clearness.

3.—*Biographical, Literary, and Philosophical Essays, contributed to the Eclectic Review.* By JOHN FOSTER, author of "Essays on Decision of Character, Popular Ignorance, and Christian Morals." 12mo., pp. 448. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

This handsomely printed volume contains twenty, selected out of fifty-nine, critical articles of the author, originally published in the London Critical Review, and recently collected and published in England, in two octavo volumes. The papers embraced in the present volume were selected with reference to the diversity and interest of the topics, their congeniality to American readers, and as exemplifying the mental and moral characteristics of their renowned author. In all the higher and more permanent qualities of intellect, in their largeness of view, penetrating subtlety of thought, deep insight into *human nature*, and sympathy with the nobler and more lofty forms of spiritual experience, *these essays will* be found eminently worthy of their author, and subservient to his *permanent repute.*

4.—*Practical Sermons for every Sunday, and Principal Holiday in the Year.* By the Rev. CHARLES BRADLEY, Vicar of Glasbury, &c. First American, from the last London edition. 8vo., pp. 288. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

This collection of sermons has passed through seven editions in England, and enjoyed a popularity with orthodox Christians, of different denominations, rarely bestowed on similar publications. We notice, also, appended to the volume, the recommendations of such men as Bishops M'Ilvaine and Hopkins, Dr. Milner, the Rev. E. W. Kirk, of the Presbyterian denomination; Rev. Dr. Williams, of the Baptist; Dr. Peck, of the Methodist, and many others, equally distinguished as popular theologians. The Rev. Dr. Sprague, of Albany, one of the best writers in the denomination to which he belongs, says—"They are characterised by great simplicity and perspicuity, by deeply evangelical views, and by a fervor and unction, which render them alike attractive and impressive."

5.—*Life and Eloquence of the Rev. Sylvester Larned, First Pastor of the First Presbyterian Church in New Orleans.* By A. R. GURLEY, New York: Wiley & Putnam.

Besides the well written and sensible memoir of Larned, this handsomely printed duodecimo of 400 pages contains a selection from his pulpit eloquence, consisting of thirty-three discourses of religion. "No minister of the same age," says the biographer, "has ever, at least in this country, left deeper impressions of his eloquence;" and, however any may dissent from the views inculcated, it must be admitted that the sermons comprised in the present volume are worthy of critical examination and study, by those who would combine in their sermons ease and elevation, with simplicity and energy. By the lay members of the Presbyterian Church, generally, we presume they will be read for higher ends—that in them their author will continue, though dead, to speak with interest and power.

6.—*Lectures on the Institution of the Sabbath.* By JOHN S. STONE, D. D. New York: A. V. Blake.

This elegantly printed volume takes the orthodox view of the institution of the Sabbath. Dr. Stone discusses, in a course of eight lectures, the objections and proof of its early institution; and adduces, in the three first, arguments in favor of its perpetual and universal obligation. The fourth exhibits the argument for the change of the Sabbath from the seventh to the first day of the week. In the fifth, sixth, and seventh, the duties, benefits, and the sinfulness of its violation, are considered; and the author concludes, in the eighth, by urging measures for the proper sanctification of the day.

7.—*The Land of Israel, according to the Covenant with Abraham, with Isaac, and with Jacob.* By ALEXANDER KEITH, D. D., author of the "Evidences of Prophecy," "Demonstrations of the Christian Religion," &c. New York: Harper & Brothers.

This volume will be read with profit by all who view with interest the prophetical, or historical part of the Bible. It embraces interesting retrospective and prospective sketches of Judea and Judaism, and may be considered as in part a sequel to Dr. K.'s treatise on the Evidence of Prophecy, besides forming an introduction to other scriptural topics, of momentous import to Gentiles, as well as Jews. It has numerous maps, and engravings illustrating scenes, scenery, and events in the history of the land of Israel.

8.—*Leisure Hours. A Choice Collection of Readings in Prose.* By Professor E. A. ANDREWS. New and illustrated edition. 12mo., pp. 340. Boston: T. H. Carter.

Here are thirty-seven tales or essays, selected with taste and judgment, from various English publications, which have either never been published in this country, or have but a very limited circulation. As a companion for leisure hours, the family circle, or which may accompany the reader, while travelling by land or water—go with him when he flies from the heat, and mire and dust of the city, to the pure air, and refreshing shade, and quiet enjoyments of the country, we know not a more delightful or pleasant companion; except, indeed, some loved and gentle being, whose soul is radiated with just such thoughts and feelings as are expressed in almost every page of this excellent work.

9.—*The French Importer's Ready Calculator; for the use of Importers and Dealers in French Goods, Custom-Houses, Exchange Brokers, and others, who have occasion to use French Measures or Currency.* By WILLIAM WARD. New York: J. S. Redfield.

It will perhaps be recollected that we noticed the proposals of Mr. Ward for publishing this work, in the August number of this Magazine, and gave a brief synopsis of the plan. A careful and minute examination of a copy of it, now before us, has satisfied us of its great utility to all persons interested in the French trade, or who may have occasion to use French measures or currency. It contains eight tables, which exhibit the amount per cent to add to original cost of goods, to determine their nett, or actual cost to the importer; the method of arriving at the cost per cent of importing; francs per metre reduced to dollars per yard, with advance per cents; francs per aune reduced to dollars per yard, with advance per cents; francs reduced to dollars, with advance per cents; francs reduced to dollars, from 1 to 1,000,000; metres reduced to yards, from 1 to 100; and aunes reduced to yards, from 1 to 100. The work has been examined and approved by many of the first French houses in New York, and may be implicitly relied on for its entire accuracy. It is handsomely printed, and neatly and substantially bound.

10.—*The Whole Works of Robert Leighton, D. D., Archbishop of Glasgow. To which is prefixed, A Life of the Author.* By JOHN NORMAN PEARSON, M. A., of Trinity College, Cambridge. 8vo., pp. 800. New York: J. C. Riker.

This is not only the first edition of the literary remains of Archbishop Leighton, ever published in this country, but the most perfect and complete that has been brought together in one volume. Two editions, we are informed by the American editor, (one published in London, in 1835, and the other in Edinburgh, in 1840,) were designated as the most approved standards. It was found, however, that the former comprised materials which were not inserted in the latter, and the Edinburgh included some articles not comprised in the English copy. The American copy before us combines the whole, found in both series. Besides this, one of our most critical and careful divines has prepared a table of the texts of scripture, and an index of the subjects, which altogether renders this as complete and perfect as could be desired. Leighton's exposition of the first epistle of Peter, which occupies three hundred and fifty pages of the volume, much enhances the value of the work; of which it has been pronounced, "that an expository work upon any portion of the sacred volume cannot be named, which, for exalted devotion, and richness of evangelical sentiment, equals the annotations of Leighton."

11.—*Illustrated Astronomy. A Pictorial Display of the Astronomical Phenomena of the Universe.* With sixty-three colored plates, illustrating a series of Familiar Discourses in Astronomy. Royal 16mo. New York: R. W. Barnard & Co.

We have, in this handsome volume, a concise and practical treatise descriptive of astronomy, accompanied by accurate illustrative plates, neatly colored. The prominent features of the present work are the novelty and simplicity of the plan, and the elegance of its execution. A careful examination of its arrangements has convinced us of its fitness to impart a clear and comprehensive knowledge of a science which, perhaps, more emphatically than any other, "declares the glory of God." Well might the poet exclaim, in the contemplation of the holy scripture of the heavens, "The undevout astronomer is mad!"

12.—*The Ingoldsby Legends; or, Mirth and Marvels.* By THOMAS INGOLDSBY, Esq. Philadelphia: Carey & Hart.

Horne, in his "New Spirit of the Age," declares that "Ingoldsby Legends" surpass in freedom, and melody of comic versification, and in the originality of compound rhymes, *everything* that has appeared since the days of Hudibras and Peter Pindar. The present edition is very handsomely printed, and illustrated with eight of Cruikshank's inimitable designs.

4.—*The Hawthorn; A Christmas and New Year's Present, for* 1845. New York: J. C. Riker.

The statement that Mrs. Childs, Mrs. Sigourney, Miss Leslie, and Mrs. Hughs, have ntributed chiefly to the pages of this handsome volume, will perhaps give a better idea its character, than anything we could say in the necessary limited space allotted to our escriptive, rather than critical notices of new works. The agreeable narrative, tale, or oem, is here made subservient to truth and goodness; so that those who take up the ook for mere amusement will scarcely lay it down without the innocent gratification of eir taste; and, what is of far higher importance, the desire of appropriating the goodess of heart and purity of life that gently breathes from every page.

4.—*The Rose, or Affection's Gift, for* 1845. Edited by EMILY MARSHALL. Illustrated with ten highly finished steel engravings. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

The present volume of this agreeable little annual, which has been continued several ears, well sustains its character. Its literary department is supported by the productions, riginal and selected, of well known and favorite authors; and the pencil of the artist, nd the burin of the engraver, have lent their aid, as usual, to complete its excellence, hich is of a more durable character than the transitory season it will contribute to renr happy. It contains some fifty articles, in prose and verse, of varied length and inrest, and ten pretty and appropriate illustrations.

5.—*The Keepsake; A Christmas, New Year's, and Birth-Day Present, for* 1845. Illustrated with ten steel plates. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

This is the first issue of an American "Keepsake." The engravings are all neatly xecuted, and several of them are highly creditable specimens of the art. There are orty-two pieces, in prose and verse—tales, sketches, and poems—from well known and vorite writers. It is, on the whole, a volume worthy of the best days of annual literare—a volume in which the eye and the intellect will find equal gratification.

6.—*The Housekeeper's Annual, and Ladies' Register, for* 1845. Boston: T. H. Carter & Co.

Besides the usual monthly calendar of the common almanac, this little manual, of about ne hundred pages, contains matter calculated to amuse, as well as instruct. The numeous receipts for domestic cookery, and other household affairs, together with its beautiful xternal appearance, will, we doubt not, render it an agreeable companion for the parlor r the work-table.

7.—*Anecdotes of the American Revolution.* New York: Alexander V. Blake.

This little volume, one of an excellent series for family or district school libraries, conists of anecdotes illustrative of the men who figured, and the events that transpired, duing the revolutionary struggle of this country. They were principally selected by a youth f twelve, and evince a discriminating judgment and taste that would be creditable to the xperience and maturity of more advanced years.

8.—*The Beechen Tree. A Tale. Told in Rhyme.* By F. W. THOMAS, author of "Clinton Bradshaw," etc. New York: Harper & Brothers.

An interesting story, "told" in easy and graceful rhyme. It is beautifully printed, and orms a handsomely bound volume, of about one hundred pages.

9.—*Pocket Editions of Select Novels, without Abridgment. No.* 3.—*Tales of Glauber-Spa.* Two volumes in one. New York: Harper & Brothers.

The tales embraced in this volume were first published in 1832. They are eight in umber; and when we say, for the information of those who have not read them, that hey were written by Miss C. M. Sedgwick, Messrs. J. K. Paulding, W. C. Bryant, R. C. lands, and William *Leggett, we have said* all that is necessary to the admirers of these *ivorite authors.*

20.—*Elements of Logic, together with an Introductory View of Philosophy in General, and a Preliminary View of the Reason.* By HENRY P. TAPPAN. New York: Wiley & Putnam.

The present treatise differs in its scope and design from the systems of logic which have hitherto been given to the world. It differs from the Aristotlian, which is simply the method of deduction; and as such, is incomplete. It appears to combine the important parts of Aristotle, Plato, and Bacon; to make out the system of logic under its several departments, and present it not merely as a method of establishing or obtaining inferences from truths, but also as a method of establishing those first truths and general principles which must precede all deduction. Its arrangement is systematic; and, on the whole, is rendered clear and comprehensive.

21.—*Puss in Boots, and the Marquis of Carabas. A pure Translation from the original German, illustrated with twelve original designs by Otto Speckler, engraved by Lossing.* New York: D. Appleton & Co.

An elegant little volume, that will amuse, if it does not instruct. The designs are capital, and the execution of the work decidedly the best we have ever seen in books for children.

22.—*Christ's Warning to the Churches, with an Appendix on the Apostolic Succession.* By JOSEPH LATHROP, D. D. With an Introductory Notice, by the Rev. J. M. WAINRIGHT, D. D. New York: Alexander V. Blake.

This is one of the many works of the past, reproduced to satisfy the demand of the times in the matter of Episcopacy *vs.* Congregationalism, and will doubtless be read with interest by both parties.

WORKS IN PAMPHLET FORM, RECEIVED SINCE OUR LAST.

1.—*Woman, as Virgin, Wife, and Mother; An Epitome of Social Duties and Domestic Enjoyments.* By the Rev. JOSIAH COLTON, D. D. New York: Wilson & Co.

2.—*Letter-Writing Simplified by Precept and Example, embracing Practical Illustrations of Epistolary Correspondence of every Age, Degree, and Station of Life.* New York: Wilson & Co.

3.—*The Mother's Medical Adviser, on the Diseases and Management of Children. With Recipes.* By THOMAS WAKLEY, M. P., Editor of the "London Lancet." New York: Wilson & Co.

4.—*Rambleton: A Romance of Fashionable Life in New York, during the Great Speculation of* 1836. By SEATSFIELD. Translated from the German. New York: J. Winchester. [To be completed in six parts, of 72 pages each.]

5.—*Evenings of a Workingman; being the Occupations of his Scanty Leisure.* By JOHN OVERS. With a Preface relative to the Author. By CHARLES DICKENS. New York: J. Winchester.

6.—*Mary Schweidler, the Amber-Witch.* Translated from the German. By Lady DUFF GORDON. New York: J. Winchester.

NEW BRIGHTON COLLEGIATE SCHOOL.

A description of the location, discipline, studies, terms, &c., of this institution, will be found on the opposite page, in the advertising department of the Magazine. Of Mr. Le Row, he Principal, we can speak from personal knowledge; and we are sure that the experience of all parents who have placed their children under his tuition, will unite with us in the opinion we now express, of his eminent qualifications as a teacher of youth; the best evidence of which is afforded in the progress so uniformly made by the pupils under his charge. The assistants in the several departments of collegiate and commercial education, are men of superior learning, and correct morals; and take a deep interest in the cause of education, generally. So high is our opinion of the peculiar advantages to be derived at this school, that, after visiting numerous similar establishments in New York and New England, we were induced, from the highest considerations, to give the preference to the Collegiate School of *Mr. Le Row*, at New Brighton, where we have placed an only son. It will be seen, by the advertisement, that flogging constitutes no part of the discipline; a fact that speaks volumes for the wisdom and capacity of the worthy Principal.

THE

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HUNT'S

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.

NOVEMBER, 1844.

Art. I.—DUTIES ON PORTUGUESE WINES.

The late circular of the Secretary of the Treasury, instructing collectors and naval officers as to what duty shall be taken on the importation of the white and red wines of Portugal, has caused much discussion among mercantile men. The point involved was an interesting and a very serious one. Our relations with Portugal, heretofore so friendly, were in danger of being severed: for we were, under the last tariff, claiming duties on these wines which amounted to prohibition; while, by treaty, Portugal was rightly put on a footing with the most favored nations.

The subject has been clung to, and treated by the Commander De Figaniere, minister for Portugal, with ability and diplomatic tact; while the officers of our own government have looked thoroughly into the subject, and not been unmindful of the rights of the United States.

The writer of this article believes that a fair exposition of the case will conclusively show that Mr. Secretary Bibb's views, (as expressed in his circular,) are sound; namely, that the following rates of duty, being those at which similar wines of the most favored nations are now admitted to entry, are all that can legally be exacted:—"On Madeira, and other white wines of Portugal and its possessions, when imported in casks, seven and a half cents per gallon; when imported in bottles, fifteen cents per gallon. On port, and other red wines of the same country, when imported in casks, six cents per gallon; and when imported in bottles, fifteen cents per gallon, (the bottles being chargeable with a separate duty, agreeably to law.")

It may give an additional interest to this article, when we say we draw some of our resources as well from congressional documents as from headquarters; and yet we do not feel disposed to say how we got possession of one, at least, of the documents we shall use. Suffice it to add, that even our government will not gainsay its authenticity.

Let us now *go to the case*. At the expiration of the revenue law known as *"the compromise act,"* a statute was approved on the 11th of Septem-

ber, 1841, which imposed ad valorem duties on wine. The Portuguese government directed their minister to remonstrate against this act, on the ground of its infringing the spirit, if not the letter, of the treaty between Portugal and the United States, the ratification of which was exchanged on the 24th of April of the same year; and to contend that Portuguese wine could not be subject to a duty higher in amount, or different in form, than was then, or might thereafter be, imposed on the wines of other nations; and that an ad valorem duty did, necessarily, subject the wine of Portugal to a higher duty in amount, although not in form; and also that, in changing the latter from a specific to an ad valorem duty on wine, it was a deviation (to the disadvantage of Portugal) from a long established system, adopted ever since the first tariff, in 1789.

While the question was pending, came the tariff of August, 1842. It re-imposed specific duties on wine; but the Portuguese government considered that it saw how treaty stipulations were again infringed; for the wine of Portugal, (i. e., the wine distinguished as Madeira and Port, and all wine of Portugal in bottles,) was selected for the imposition of the heavy specific difference of 1,000 per centum more on the Madeira, when compared with the duties on other wines, (some of which were far more costly than the Portuguese wine,) and of 250 per centum more on Port than on other foreign wines. At this point, the Portuguese minister was alive; and, on his remonstrating, a clause was inserted in the act, providing that it should not be construed, or permitted so to operate, as to interfere with subsisting treaties.

As the act then stood, and as no legislative relief appeared at hand, the Portuguese legation corresponded with our Executive.

We now refer to this correspondence, as we shall gather argument from it. The Commander De Figaniere thus writes to Mr. Webster, on the 25th of August, 1842:—

"Her Majesty's Government understands the third article of the treaty of the 26th August, 1840, between Portugal and the United States, as expressly, clearly, and positively stipulating that all the wines of Portugal and of its possessions, on their importation into the United States, can be subject but to one duty alone; and that this duty shall not exceed the lowest which may be imposed on the wines of any other country; and that the only distinction which the said article of the treaty might admit, could be, perhaps, a difference between the white and red wines; but in both cases subject to a uniform duty respectively, and no higher in either case than that which may be imposed on other most favored white and red wines. Indeed, this was one of the principal motives which led the Queen's Government to conclude the existing treaty with the United States. Aware that the American tariffs had heretofore made distinctions in the various wines, the produce of Portugal and of its possessions, the treaty was intended to do away with these differences, which were generally prejudicial to Portuguese wines, when compared with the duties laid upon those of other countries, which, under the treaty, could be no longer similarly favored. And that this was the real purport of the stipulation under consideration, is evident from the explanatory proviso inserted at the end of the said third article, respecting the then existing convention of 1831 between the United States and France. This clause would have been unnecessary, if the wines of Portugal and its possessions had been deemed *unlike* articles, in reference to French wines; and if we look into that convention, lately expired, we shall find that it stipulated the duty on French wines should not exceed, on the red wines, without reference to names, quality, cost, or value, six cents per gallon, *on the white*, ten cents, and those in bottles, twenty-two cents.

"*Could the* wines of Portugal, of Madeira, and of the Azores be subject, notwithstanding the treaty, to a higher or other duty than the wines of France, or of Spain, &c., because they bear a different name, or have a different flavor, to what

other equivalent, in lieu thereof, the undersigned will respectfully inquire, would Portugal be entitled to, for admitting Kentucky tobacco, Carolina rice, Richmond flour, and other produce of the United States, on a parity in the rate of duty with Bahia tobacco, Para rice, similar flour, and other produce of other countries?

"Were Portuguese wines not to be considered, in the language of the treaty, "*like articles*" or wines of other countries, the treaty itself, the undersigned would venture to say, would be then of no avail to Portugal and its possessions, (mostly wine-growing countries,) and its stipulations without meaning, or the possibility of compliance for the due and intended protection of Portuguese wines; when, and at the same time, the American Government, and also the Government of her Majesty, consider the same stipulations as restraining Portugal from laying *higher or other duties* on the produce of the United States than on the like produce of other countries, although the former be distinguished by the name of the State where produced, or may cost more, or be of a higher value than the latter. This is the case with the articles just mentioned, (mostly all differing in quality, color, cost, and value,) as with wines; and nevertheless are subject, respectively, to one and the same duty, whether imported from the United States, Cuba, or Brazil; and so likewise the treaty literally and intentionally includes the article *wine*.

"The undersigned will submit to the consideration of Mr. Webster one more illustration, which he thinks will throw additional light upon the subject. He will advance, (and it will be conceded,) that, under the terms of the treaty, the grapes of Lisbon, for instance, of Madeira, or of Oporto, would be uniformly taxed, when imported into the United States; and that on neither could be levied a higher duty than on the grapes of France or of Spain: it follows, of course, that no difference can be made, as respects duties, in the juice of these various grapes of Portugal and its possessions, notwithstanding it may be called Port, Lisbon, or Madeira wine; nor can it, according to the treaty, be subjected to a higher or other duty than that which may be laid on the juice of the French or Spanish grape, however the one be called Burgundy, and the other Malaga wine."

On the 10th of November, in the same year, the Portuguese minister proposed to our then secretary of state, Mr. Webster, that instructions should be given (to the same effect, in fact, as really has been since given by the circular of Secretary Bibb, namely,) that the proper custom-house officers should cease to levy higher or other duties on wines of Portugal and her possessions, whether in casks or bottles, than were levied by the act of the 30th of August, 1842, on the wines, in casks or bottles, of the most favored nations; and to refund the excess of such duties as had been wrongfully, as was insisted, paid. And his Excellency ended his letter thus:—"You will undoubtedly have observed, sir, that, in this respect, Portugal asks for no special favor for her produce. She simply claims the fulfilment of a reciprocal engagement, to be treated upon an equality with other nations which have like produce with herself, and similar existing stipulations with the United States. In fact, Portugal but insists upon the common axiom, that the same causes must produce the same effects; consequently, that her wine must be upon an equal footing, in the revenue laws of the United States, with (for instance) the wine of Prussia, which is uniformly taxed in the act of the 30th of August, although that country produces, and exports to this, wine as varied in quality, flavor, and cost, as is imported from Portugal and its possessions."

We now come to an important document from the treasury department, dated January 10, 1843, being a communication from Mr. Forward, secretary of the treasury, to Mr. Webster, secretary of state, from which we make the following *extract*. It will be found adverse to the views and *wishes of the Portuguese legation*:—

"It appears from the notes of the minister of Portugal, that, previously to the passage of the tariff act of 30th August last, and while the revenue law of 11th September, 1841, was still in force, under which duties ad valorem were levied on all wines imported into the United States, complaint was made, on the part of Portugal, of the effect of that law, as violating, if not the letter, the spirit of the treaty between the United States and Portugal, concluded on the 26th August, 1840. The reply of the department of state to this complaint, under date of the 9th February last, in the opinion of this department, placed the subject in its true light, and showed conclusively that the act of 11th September, 1841, did no violence to the treaty with Portugal, either in letter or spirit.

"On the passage of the act of 30th August last, in which specific duties are levied on all wines imported into the United States, it appears that renewed remonstrances were made by the minister of Portugal against alleged infractions of treaty stipulations, effected by the provisions of that act. These allegations, it is conceived, are of no greater force than those formerly urged. In adjusting the rates of specific duties ad valorem on wines, it is assumed and believed that Congress acted with a special reference to the foreign values of the several kinds of this product; and in good faith intended, and did, in effect, attain as near an approximation to equivalent rates of duty, if charged on such values, as the complicated and uncertain nature of the subject would admit. This being conceded, it must be obvious that the objections presented in the notes of the minister of Portugal, of the 25th August and 10th November last, to the provisions of the act of 30th August, 1842, find their satisfactory answer in the note from the department of state, of 9th February last; for, as "neither of the contracting parties, in making the treaty, could have supposed itself precluded from the ordinary modes of exercising its own power of making laws for raising revenue in its own accustomed modes," the system of specific duties, or that of duties ad valorem, might unquestionably be adopted by either government, at its own discretion, without any infraction of treaty stipulations, although some inconvenience might unhappily follow, as an incident to the commercial interest of one or the other of the contracting parties. In reference to the argument of the minister of Portugal, founded on the occurrence in the treaty of the phrase, "like articles," it is thought sufficient by this department to express its concurrence in the opinion given in the note from the department of state, before referred to, that the wines of different places, or different character or designation, are, in fact, separate articles, liable, on their several importations, to be charged with different duties by this government, without any violation of our treaty with Portugal.

"It may be added that, on an examination of the subject, with reference to the actual effect of the law, and taking the quantity and value of the various wines imported during 1841 as the basis of calculation, it does not appear that Portugal has any just reason to complain. The following table will show that, while the Madeira wine of Portugal, under the specific duty of 60 cents per gallon, pays a duty equivalent to 34.41 per cent ad valorem, all the principal wines of other countries, with scarcely a single exception, pay a higher rate ad valorem—some much higher; and several of them double the amount; and that, in the few instances in which a lower rate is paid by "other countries," the amount of importations is so small as to be hardly worthy of consideration.

WINES IMPORTED IN 1841.

Wines.	Galls. imp.	For. cost.	Duty, act of 1842.	Duties.	Equiv. ad val. duty.
Madeira,.....	139,870	$243,827	60 cts.	$83,922 00	34.41 p. ct.
Sherry,.....	133,876	141,793	60	80,325 60	56.65 "
Sicily,.....	420,887	146,689	25	105,221 75	71.73 "
Red of France,.....	1,670,037	254,244	6	100,202 22	39.41 "
Other of France,.....	683,036	156,541	6	40,982 16	26.18 "
French, in bottles,.....	259,761	451,110	35	90,916 35	20.15 "
Red of Spain, or.....	302,584	59,007	12½	37,823 00	64.09 "
Other of Spain, or.....	961,310	267,903	12½	120,163 75	44.85 "
Of other countries, in casks,...	392,898	241,331	...	.....	.....

WINES OF OTHER COUNTRIES, IN CASKS.

Wines.	Galls. imp.	For. cost.	Duty, act of '42.	Duties.	Equiv. ad val. duty.
From England,.....	9,807	$9,952	15 cts.	$1,471 05	14.78 p. ct.
Teneriffe, and other Canaries,...	81,164	36,108	20	16,232 80	44.95 "
Portugal,.....	255,476	169,728	6	15,328 56	9. "
Fayal and Azores,.....	30,651	11,921	6	715 26	6. "
Italy,.....	2,006	6,032	12½	250 75	4.15 "
Sicily,.....	11,370	4,325	15	1,705 50	39.43 "
Other countries,.....	2,424	3,265	15	363 60	11. "
Total,.....	392,898	$241,331	...	$36,067 52	.....

"Viewing the question, then, in every respect, it must be apparent that the good faith of the government of the United States has been, inviolably preserved towards Portugal, as it regards the existing treaty; and, with these views, this department can perceive no just ground to advise an interposition, on the part of the President, under the provision of law referred to by the minister of Portugal.

A copy of this document was sent by Mr. Webster to the Portuguese minister, and it brought out the long-gun of the latter, as we shall see by the following letter addressed to Mr. Webster, dated the 21st of January, 1843. This "long-gun" carries far, but we are compelled to extract such portions, only, as bear more immediately upon the question.

"The ground of that decision (Mr. Forward's) is based upon a note of Mr. Webster, of the 9th of February last, addressed to the undersigned, in reply to a former claim, arising from an act of Congress which has expired; but which reply, it seems, Mr. Forward has deemed pertinent to the new remonstrance, without considering that the points of the said note of the 9th February, which might be relevant to the matter in question, had been fully met, the undersigned thinks, by the remarks he had made in his last two notes.

"Mr. Forward supposes that, because Madeira wine, under the specific duty of 60 cents, does not pay, according to its cost, a higher ad valorem duty than other principal wines of other countries, there is no just cause of complaint, on the part of Portugal, against the provisions of the act of the 30th of August, 1842. Mr. de Figaniere begs leave to say that this is not the question; for the object of the treaty was to do away with every discrimination whatever, whether specific or ad valorem. The result which one or the other might eventually have upon any given article, is, therefore, perfectly immaterial. Still, what has been thus advanced, requires explanation.

"The table annexed to Mr. Forward's letter either assumes the Madeira wine, for instance, all to be of the same cost, consequently of the same quality, or to be of different qualities and cost, as is the case. It then shows an average price of all of them, and draws the conclusion that there is no violation of the treaty with Portugal, because, on an average, Madeira, and other wine of Portugal, pay no higher ad valorem duty than other foreign wines. This is perfectly arbitrary, it is thought, and inconclusive. The stipulation of the treaty, that "no higher or other duty" shall be levied upon the article (wine) of Portugal and its possessions, than upon the "like article" (wine) of any other foreign country, cannot have its proposed effect. Assuming even that wine be an article, in the meaning of the treaty, to be subdivided for the imposition of duties; the subdivision, in that case, must be carried out thoroughly as regards quality, quantity, and cost. This Mr. Webster will grant, and Mr. Forward acknowledges to be impossible, from the nature of the article; and yet this difficulty is to be conquered, to meet, under this construction, the stipulation in question.

"From the knowledge that the undersigned has of the wine trade, he does not hesitate to advance that *the cost* of the Madeira wine, in the table drawn up at the *department of the treasury*, and upon which the calculation of duties is based, *far exceeds the true cost of the* same wine; because it is not unusual, but, on the

contrary, very generally adopted by the exporters of wine in Madeira, to overcharge their invoices, that, by thus innocently enhancing the value of the merchandise, the consignee may be induced to obtain the highest market price. The table itself contains the proof of what has been advanced. Among the wines from other countries, there are 9,807 gallons, in casks, from England—this, or the last item on the table, of 2,424 gallons, must necessarily be Port wine, both from the place whence imported, and the rate of duty prefixed. Now, it is an established fact, that Madeira and Port wines are, according to their respective similar qualities, of the same cost; further, that only the rated "first quality" of Port wine is generally, if not exclusively, imported to England; and yet the table shows this wine not to exceed $1 per gallon cost, although overburdened with double freight, double insurance, commissions, and other charges; while the Madeira, of all qualities, (the lower exceeding vastly more the higher,) imported direct, appears to cost $1 75 per gallon—nearly double.

"Besides, without reference to wines of other countries, taking the table as it is, it shows a vast difference in the rate of duty on Portuguese wine alone, Madeira paying 60 cents, or 34.41 per cent; Port, 15 cents, or 14.78 per cent; red Lisbon, or Figueira, 6 cents, or 9 per cent; and, finally, Fayal wine, 6 cents, or 6 per cent. Surely, when Her Majesty's government concluded the treaty of the 26th August, 1840, with the United States, it certainly had not in view, nor could have anticipated, that it should be a contract for the benefit of one part of Her Majesty's dominions, to the detriment of other portions of the same dominions.

"Again—the table which has served as a basis of calculation to carry out Mr. Forward's principle, shows that 683,036 gallons of French wine paid only an equivalent ad valorem duty of 26.18 per cent; that is, less by 8.23 per cent than Madeira; another large portion of French wine, in bottles, 14.26 per cent less; a small portion (however small the quantity may be, it cannot destroy the argument against the principle,) of Italian wine paid but 4.15 per cent, or over 30 per cent less than Madeira wine—and less, too, than all kinds of Portuguese wines. Now, at this stage of the question, the undersigned will not hesitate respectfully to inquire of Mr. Webster, and to abide by his judgment, whether there be not a manifest violation of the treaty with Portugal?

"But, the main question which has unfortunately arisen between the Government of her Most Faithful Majesty and the Government of the United States, is in respect to the construction of the stipulation contained in the 3d article of their treaty, and especially what is meant by the words "like articles."

"Vattel, (b. 2, ch. 17, sec. 270, lays down as the general rule for a lawful interpretation of a treaty, "to discover what was probably in the thoughts of those who drew it up," and (sec. 271) that, in the interpretation of treaties, "we ought not to deviate from the *common usage of language*." Now, to apply these rules to the matter in question, it must first be ascertained what was the intention of the contracting parties in making the treaty, and then there will be but one opinion as to the true meaning of the words "the like article."

"First, then, it must be taken into consideration, that both parties were aware that the exports of Portugal and its neighboring insular provinces consist chiefly —indeed, almost exclusively—of wine; that Portugal, in acceding at last to repeated invitations of the United States to conclude a commercial treaty, by which all the benefit to be derived by the shipping interest from such a contract would entirely be in favor of the United States, her Majesty's Government could only have had in view to obtain, and the United States to grant, a more favorable market for Portuguese wines, by the abolishment, in its most extensive sense, in the ports of the Union, of all discriminating duties whatever, specific or ad valorem, which had before been imposed by the tariffs of the United States; in a word, that the wines of Portugal should be admitted on a parity, in the duty, with the wines of the most favored nation.

"That this was the intention of both Governments, and of their plenipotentiaries, in regard to all Portuguese and American products in general, and more especially with regard to Portuguese wines, cannot, the undersigned justly conceives, be disputed; when, moreover, the proviso to the 3d article fully corroborates this

mutual understanding of the parties to the treaty, as it points plainly to this *very article wine*, in the sense just stated; that so long as the convention of 1831 with France existed, and no longer, could the exception continue in favor of French wines; the consequence being, that, thereafter, Portuguese wines, with those of France, should be uniformly taxed, distinguishing only the red from the white, and wine in bottles, as in that convention, in contradistinction to the mode until then adopted in the revenue laws of the United States, to the detriment of the wines of Portugal and its possessions, which always suffered from heavy discriminating duties, as is shown in the annexed table, No. 1."

"The object of the treaty being clear and indisputable, as Mr. de Figaniere thinks, he flatters himself that the sense intended to be conveyed by the plenipotentiaries, to the words "like article," cannot long remain a matter of controversy. (Vattel, b. 2, ch. 17, secs. 274, 287, and 290.)

"Following the rule of construction already quoted, *in common language*, the article wine, means wine; tobacco, means tobacco; and flour, means flour. The *article* is, therefore, the *genus;* and although this genus may have different kinds or species, still, all these are embraced in the genus, which is the abstraction of the species, the common denomination of all of them. It was evidently the intention of the contracting parties not to depart from the common signification of the word "article," as they certainly could not have contemplated an impossibility, (Vattel, b. 2, ch. 17, sec. 283;) for, if the words "like article" are to be applied to the species, in vain will a like article be sought for. Wine is wine; but even Madeira wine is not Madeira wine, and Maryland tobacco is not Maryland tobacco, for there are within each species of the article numerous distinctions as to quality, price, color, &c. &c.; and, certainly, under no circumstances can it be said that Port wine, or Madeira wine, is "the like article" as any sort of wine growing in any other country. There may be a resemblance between two sorts of wine of different countries; but they can certainly never be called, with propriety, the like article; and so the case would never arise for the application of the treaty stipulation, which would, consequently, be null and without any effect whatever—a supposition which cannot, according to sound rules of construction, be entertained. (Vattel, as quoted above.)

"The plenipotentiaries would surely never have used the words "the like article," had they intended any reference to the species, (which is nonentity in this case.) Had such been their design, they would have used, with more propriety, Mr. de Figaniere thinks, the words similar articles, and have laid down rules clearly to ascertain what was to constitute the similarity, instead of leaving the question open to all those doubts which must necessarily arise under Mr. Webster's construction.

"The honorable secretary of state, in his note of the 9th of February, seems to think that the commodity of the same denomination—that wine, in fact, which has the like value—is to be considered as the "like article;" and hence Mr. Forward argues, that Portuguese wine, being more valuable than most all other wine, the higher specific duty upon the former does not operate as a higher ad valorem duty; and that only if other foreign wine of the same value were subject to a lower duty, could Portugal have cause of complaint.

"Even admitting this argument to be in conformity with the treaty, (which opinion, however, must be considered as refuted by the foregoing remarks,) the violation of that treaty is then evident; inasmuch as the act of the 30th of August, complained of, imposes 40 cents per gallon on the wine called Champagne—a species of the article (wine) vastly more costly than the generality of that which is imported from Madeira, and yet this pays 60 cents per gallon; and so with many other kinds of wine, which Mr. de Figaniere thinks superfluous to enumerate.

"But the above assumption is altogether ungrounded. Had the parties to the treaty intended to stipulate that merchandise of the same value as that from other countries should be treated alike, they would have said so, and not have used the phrase "the like article," which can alone have the meaning of alike in all the general *features which constitute* the genus, in contradistinction from the species. *If articles were the like* articles because they have the same value, other qualities

might be stated, with the same reason, to constitute the criterion of the likeness—the like color, the like strength, the like body, &c. &c.; for all these, and the like considerations, determine the species or kind of wine, but not the genus or article wine.

"Mr. Webster says, that neither party to the treaty between Portugal and the United States supposed itself precluded, by its stipulations, from the ordinary modes of exercising its own power of making laws for raising revenue; and because the United States have heretofore made distinctions in the general article wine, Mr. Webster argues that it would not be considered as any infraction of the treaty with Portugal to subject Port wine to one duty, and Sicily wine to another, because they are separate articles, so regarded in transactions of commerce, in the duty-laws of various governments, and especially in those of the United States; and refers to the example of the teas of China, which have heretofore been subject to different rates of duty, in the United States, as separate articles—as Bohea, Congo, Hyson, &c.

"In the first place, although the undersigned perceives, by the bill transmitted to the House of Representatives at the last session by the secretary of the treasury, that the American government abandoned the distinction alluded to as respects teas, and proposed a uniform duty on the black, and another on green tea, Mr. de Figaniere cannot perceive that this example can be applicable to the case; for tea is the product of a plant as yet peculiar to China alone, and no question of a similar character can arise until the plant be transplanted, and other countries export the produce, and have like treaty stipulations with the United States. Secondly, in England, and, indeed, in all other countries, the undersigned believes wine, as an article, without reference to quality, cost, or even color, is subject to one duty alone on the quantity; (the imperial gallon in England, the pipe in other countries, &c.;) while, on the contrary, the United States have endeavored to discriminate between the different kinds, which discrimination has always been disadvantageous to the wine of Portugal and its possessions, as has been shown above; while it has equally been stated that "the reason of the treaty—that is, the motive which led to the making of it," (Vattel, § 287,) was to cause the cessation of the said disadvantage; for, otherwise, Portugal would have required no treaty with the United States, so long as their known commercial policy continued. And the undersigned will take this occasion to call the attention of the honorable secretary of state to the extraordinary feature this discussion has disclosed—and that is, that the wine of Portugal, and especially the kinds called Madeira and Port, which predominate in the trade with the United States, never bore, before the treaty, so heavy a discriminating duty, with reference to other wines, as since the conclusion of that treaty! When stipulations are entered into by one government with another, if the customary mode of raising revenue in the one operates as an infringement of the stipulations with, and to the prejudice of, the other, that government is bound, in good faith, to change the mode, however prescriptive it might be, and adopt another in accordance with, or to meet its engagements; and although, thirdly, the different species or kinds of wine may be, in a commercial sense, separate articles, they are not such in the sense of the treaty, as has been already demonstrated.

"Besides, when two nations conclude a commercial treaty, it is reasonable to suppose they can have no other object in view than to give and to receive, mutually, as near as possible, equal advantages. This equitable principle, invariable in such treaties, would suffice, the undersigned would think, to exclude the construction the American government gives to the treaty with Portugal; for, Portugal having most faithfully performed her part of the contract, all the advantages in this case accrue to the benefit of the United States, and all the disadvantages to the detriment of Portugal. This is no false inference, Mr. de Figaniere begs to say; it is the actual state of things, brought about by, principally, the act of the 30th of August last; for the traffic in wine, which, like all other trade, finds its level when untrammelled, is now at a stand, as respects wine from Portugal. While other qualities of wine continue to be imported, very little Madeira and Port has arrived since the passage of that act. Vessels with full

s of American produce are constantly departing for Portugal and its pos-
ıs; they either find freights for other countries, bring a few bushels of salt,
ırn in ballast. Equity requires that the same, or equivalent benefit, be
ed to both the contracting parties.

ıw, without prescinding from what has been stated, the undersigned begs
urther to call the honorable secretary's attention to another, and, perhaps,
er and a more satisfactory mode of viewing the subject in question.

ɔeing established that the design of the treaty was to extend, in the ports of
ontracting power, to their respective products the same rights, privileges,
ors, which are, or may be, granted to the most favored nation, (articles 5th,
d 13th,) Mr. de Figaniere proposes to show that this stipulation has been
.rded in the act of the 30th of August, 1842; unless, indeed, such a use
e of the proviso in the law, as to adapt it to the treaty, as he requested in
e of the 10th of November last.

e act imposes duties on wine, as per annexed extract, No. 2. It will be
ed that upon all the wines of Austria and Prussia, in casks, but one uniform
laid—on the white wine, 7 1-2 cents per gallon; on the red wine, 6 cents,
ıly also. Not so with the wine of Portugal. Madeira, however inferior in
, pays 60 cents, or ten times more than Moselle, and other superior Rhenish
k wines; Port, nearly three times as much, or 15 cents per gallon.

will not be necessary, Mr. de Figaniere thinks, to enumerate all the par-
kinds of wine produced in these three mentioned countries, nor to undergo
icult task of establishing their numerous qualities and cost. He presumes
make out his case, it is sufficiently known that there are, in the wines of
ɔuntries, different classes; of these, different qualities, and these yet sub-
subdivision; and all bearing various and different prices, from the highest
owest cost.

ɔ undersigned does not complain of the above apparent favor with which
ıe of Austria and Prussia is treated in the revenue law alluded to; but he
say, with all respect, that Her Most Faithful Majesty's government does
in (and he contends that it has full cause of complaint) in not being equally
with Austria and Prussia—the three cases being exactly similar; similar
ıree nations producing wine; similar in their respective wines being sus-
: of division and subdivision, as to quality and cost; and similar, again, in
tipulations with the United States. And, as an illustration of this latter
ɔ undersigned will here copy the fifth article of the treaty between the
States and Prussia, of the 1st of May, 1828; which, Mr. Webster will
ɔ, corresponds, word for word, to the third article of the treaty of the 26th
ust, 1840, between Portugal and the United States: 'No higher or other
hall be imposed on the importation into the United States of any article,
duce or manufacture of Prussia, (the growth, produce, or manufacture of
ɔdom and possessions of Portugal;) and no higher or other duties shall be
on the importation into the kingdom of Prussia, (into the kingdom and
ons of Portugal,) of any article, the (growth) produce or manufacture of
ted States, than (such as) are, or shall be, payable on the like article, being
ɔwth) produce or manufacture of any other foreign country.'

ıer the United States government deemed itself bound, by this stipulation
ussia, to admit her wines on the payment of a uniform duty on the red and
vhite respectively; and, in that case, the same stipulation prevailing with
l, the same causes should produce the same effects; or, the United States
this special favor to the wine of Austria and Prussia; and, in this instance,
l can claim the same favor for her wine, according to the stipulation of
ɔenth article of her treaty with the United States."

.—*Referred to in preceding note, showing the Duties on Wines since* 1789.

1789—Madeira,	18 cts.	per gallon
Other wines,	10	"
1790—*Madeira, first quality,*	35	"
" *other qualities,*	30	"
Sherry,	25	"

Tariff—1790—Other wines,		20 cts.	per gallon.
" 1792—Madeira, first quality,		56	"
" second quality,		49	"
" third quality,		40	"
Sherry,		33	"
St. Lucar,		30	"
Lisbon and Port,		25	"
Teneriffe and Fayal,		20	"
All other wines,		40 per ct.	ad val.
" 1795—Same as above, and—			
Champagne and Burgundy,		40 cts.	per gallon.
Malaga,		20	"
" 1812—War with England—all duties doubled.			
" 1816—Madeira and Champagne, Rhenish and Tokay,		$1	per gallon.
Sherry and St. Lucar,		60 cts.	per gallon.
Lisbon, Port, others of Portugal, and Sicily wines,		50	"
Teneriffe, Fayal, and others of Azores,		40	"
All others, in bottles,		70	"
" in casks,		25	"
" 1819—Same as 1816.			
Reducing the unenumerated, in casks, to		15	"
" " " in bottles,		30	"
" 1828—Of France, Germany, Spain, and the Mediterranean, in casks,		15	"
Except red of France and Spain, in casks,		10	"
Of all countries not especially enumerated, in casks,		30	"
(When in bottles, duty on same.)			
On Sherry and Madeira,		50	"
" 1832—Of France, (convention of 1831,) red,		6	"
White,		10	"
Other, in bottles,		22	"
After 3d of March, 1834, reduction of one-half on all wines, therefore—			
Madeira,		25	"
All other Portuguese,		15	"
Act 4th July, 1838, a further reduction of one-half on wines of every nation, which reduced (besides periodical reductions, as provided in "compromise act" of 1833,) Madeira to		12½	"
And all other Portuguese wine to		7½	"

No. 2.—*Referred to in Mr. Figaniere's note, showing the duties on wine, as per act of 30th of August, 1842; and that all the white wines of Austria, Prussia, and Sardinia, are subject to one duty, and all red wines of the same countries to a uniform duty and Sicily wine, in bottles, to 15 cents.*

On Madeira, Sherry, St. Lucar, and Canary,	60 cts.	per gallon.
On Champagne wines,	40	"
On Port, Burgundy, and Claret, in bottles,	30	"
On Port and Burgundy, in casks,	15	"
On Teneriffe,	20	"
On claret, in casks,	6	"
On the white, not enumerated, of France, Austria, Prussia, and Sardinia, and of Portugal, and possessions,	7½	"
In bottles,	20	"
On the red of the above countries, not enumerated,	6	"
In bottles,	20	"
On the white and red of Spain, Germany, and the Mediterranean, not enumerated, in casks,	12½	"
In bottles,	20	"
On Sicily-Madeira, or Marsalla, in casks,	25	"
On others of Sicily, in casks or bottles,	15	"
On all other, not enumerated, and other than those of France, Austria, Prussia, and Sardinia, and of Portugal and its possessions, in bottles,	65	"
In casks,	25	"

The view taken of the case by the Portuguese minister, is upheld by the opinion expressed by Mr. Kavanagh, who was our minister under the treaty with Portugal. In a letter written by him to the former, he says—"I regret exceedingly to find that Portugal has cause to complain of those provisions of the late tariff act that relate to the article wine. It was certainly the intention of the negotiators of the treaty of 1840, that the produce of Portugal should be admitted into this country on as favorable terms, in every respect, as that of any other nation; and the words that are used in the treaty did not appear to us to leave any ground, whatever, for doubt or misconception. How that equality was to be produced, it did not occur to us that it was within *our* competency to stipulate. I agree with you that the specifications in the act of August 30, 1842, are manifestly unequal and unjust; nor can I understand by what rule the committee were governed who reported the bill. I hope, however, that the proper officers will avail themselves of the proviso to do justice."

In the Congressional Document No. 41, of the twenty-eighth Congress, Mr. Secretary Upshur confessed the claim of Portugal "to be extremely strong;" while, in a letter which he had written to the Portuguese minister a short time before, he said that "the subject would be brought before Congress at an early date, and there was every reason to hope and to expect that it would be adjusted upon terms satisfactory to Portugal."

On the 10th day of January last, (1844,) President Tyler transmitted a message to the House of Representatives, together with the above-mentioned letter of the secretary of state, and the correspondence also before alluded to. It was read on the same day, and referred to the committee on foreign affairs; and this committee, about a month afterwards, made a report, (unanimously agreed to,) sustaining the Portuguese claim; and accompanied it with a bill to carry into effect the spirit of the treaty with Portugal, and to authorize a refundment of the excess of duty paid. This report ended with the following decisive language:—"Your committee are satisfied that the claims of the government of Portugal are just and reasonable, and that the rights guaranteed to her, by her treaty with the United States, have been overlooked, (unintentionally, no doubt,) in the tariff act of 1842. They therefore beg leave to report a bill putting the wines of Portugal on the same footing with the wines of the most favored nations, and providing for a repayment of all sums which may have been collected on the wines of Portugal, contrary to this principle."

The bill was, for nearly two months, in charge of the committee of the whole House on the state of the Union, without any action being had upon it. Meanwhile, the committee of ways and means had reported a new tariff bill, in which it was proposed to levy a duty of 30 per centum ad valorem, on all wines.

In this stage of the matter, the minister for Portugal again remonstrated. He insisted that an ad valorem principle was improper, raising a new observation: that an ad valorem rate, if applied to an article like wine, would, most assuredly, tend to encourage the dishonest dealer, to the injury of the honest merchant. He urged also the loss which the vineyards and commerce of Portugal had already suffered, by a misinterpretation of the treaty—a loss of a market that could not be compensated for; while he conceded that, at all events, if the then specific duties on wine were to remain for any *length of time*, and the bill to carry the treaty into effect *were to pass without further* delay, Portugal might repair that loss, in

part, however, only, by having the same chance of the American market on terms like those connected with wines which had enjoyed the market, to the exclusion, for two years, of Portuguese wines.

The effect of the tariff act of 1842 had been most serious. For instance, the importation of Madeira wine had fallen off from a yearly average of 194,824 gallons, for the five years preceding this tariff, to 4,794 gallons in the year subsequent to its passage, and to much less since that time. This enormous difference had resulted, of course, to the advantage of the wine of other countries.

We now come to a paper in which we, ourselves, had a hand. Importers of Portuguese wine felt that the tariff amounted to interdiction; and the question was mooted as to how it could be legal, when it clashed with the terms of the treaty, and with the recognition of that treaty in the tariff itself. A case was laid before counsel; and Daniel Lord, jr., Esq., of New York, with the writer of this article, gave a joint opinion on the question, mainly written by Mr. Lord. The principal part of this opinion fell into the hands of the Portuguese minister; and he laid it, to strengthen his views, (as he considered,) before Mr. Upshur, the then secretary of state. This was in December, 1843. The following embrace such parts of the opinion:—

"By the proviso in the eighth section of the act of 1842, August 30, 'that nothing in that act contained shall be construed or permitted to operate so as to interfere with subsisting treaties with foreign nations,' we are relieved from considering the delicate question whether, when an act of Congress is passed, (all parts of the legislative power, which includes the treaty-making power of the country, concurring,) which conflicts with an anterior treaty, the courts of this country can execute the treaty, by treating the act of Congress as inoperative?

"By the proviso introduced into the section imposing the wine duties, it is plain that Congress did not intend the law to conflict with the treaties; but that the executive and judicial functionaries, whose province it is—the one primarily, the other ultimately—to construe the law, should so construe it as not to infringe the treaties; and, if no construction of the words of the law could relieve the latter from a conflict with the treaties, then they were not to *permit* the law to interfere with the treaties. The question, therefore, is fully open to the operation of the courts of justice.

"Then, what is to be the true construction as to wines, under the third article of the treaty?

"In the construction of an act of Congress imposing duties, it is settled, that articles are to be classed, not according to origin, use or value, but solely according to the commercial name or designation which they bear. It might result from this that an identity or difference of commercial designation would indicate the identity or diversity of the articles. Does this mode of interpretation belong to a treaty? The reason why it is adopted in the construction of a revenue law is, that, as it is addressed to merchants, its terms shall be taken in a commercial sense, and be adjudged commercial terms. This reason has not a like application to a treaty, which is based on a broad reference to the rules of natural reason. It is addressed, not so much to merchants, as to the princes who are parties; and it seems hardly accordant with a just construction of treaties to apply to them the technical rules which are applied by the functionaries

of one of the nations in its administration of its revenue laws to the subjects thereof.

"The phrase '*like article*,' in the third article of the treaty, must be determined from the broad meaning it bears in common understanding as applicable to a subject and to the position and relation to the subject of the parties using the language, thence inferring the sense in which the terms were or are to be deemed used.

"It is to be remarked that the wines from Lisbon, Oporto, and Madeira form a very large part of the merchandise which Portugal exports from her possessions into the United States. It is a subject, therefore, which could not fail to have come under the contemplation of the parties in the treaty. It was a subject on which the chief commercial advantage to Portugal, from the reciprocity of the treaty, was to be derived; and must be deemed to have been an object of prominent attention.

"At this period, the state of the legislation of the United States on the wine duty was as follows: The tariff law of April 27, 1816, (3 Story's Laws, U. S. 1587.) §1. class sixth, page 1590, had imposed a specific duty on wines as follows, viz: on Madeira, Burgundy, Champagne, Rhenish and Tokay one dollar per gallon, on Sherry and St. Lucar, sixty cents per gallon; on other wine not enumerated, when imported in bottles or cases, seventy cents per gallon; on Lisbon, Oporto, and on other wines of Portugal and those of Sicily, fifty cents per gallon; on Teneriffe, Fayal, and other wines of the western Islands, forty cents per gallon; on all other wines, when imported otherwise than in cases and bottles, twenty-five cents per gallon. Although a specific duty is laid by this act, yet it would seem to have gone upon the notion of a charge according to the value of the article as a general guide, although it adopted the form of a specific duty for convenience of assessing it.

"In the next alteration of the tariff, by the act of 1824, May 24, (3 Story, 1942) no change appears to have been made in the wine duties. By the act of May 24, 1828, (U. S. Laws, vol. 8, p. 130) new duties were imposed on wines; and the old duties ceased. The new duties were on the wines of France, Germany, Spain, and the Mediterranean, when imported in casks, unless specially enumerated, fifteen cents per gallon, except the red wines of France and Spain when not imported in bottles, which were to pay only ten cents per gallon. On wines of all countries when imported in bottles or cases, unless specially enumerated, on wines of Sicily and on all wines not enumerated, whether imported in bottles, cases or casks, thirty cents per gallon in addition to the duty existing on the bottles when thus imported. On Sherry and Madeira wines, whether imported in bottles, casks, or cases, fifty cents per gallon in addition to the duty on the bottles when so imported. (4 Story, 2113.)

In the act of 1832, July 14, (4 Story, 2321,) also act July 13 (1832, § 10,) is the following provision. '*Twenty-third.* On the wines of France, namely, red wines in casks, six cents a gallon; white wines in casks, ten cents a gallon; and French wine of all sorts in bottles, twenty-two cents a gallon, until the 3d of March, 1834, and from and after that day, one half of those rates respectively. And on all wines other than those of France, one-half of their present rates of duty, respectively, from and after the day last aforesaid. Provided that no higher duty shall be charged under this act or any existing law on the red wines of Austria than are now

or may be, by this act, levied upon red wines of Spain, when the said wines are imported in casks.'

"It is material to notice that, at this date, a special provision had been made, reducing the French wines-duty, by the treaty with France, to the rates specified in the act: see treaty of Paris, 4th July, 1831, act 7. (8th vol. laws U. S. 1000.)

"There was also a treaty with Austria, the fifth article of which, in substance and expression, is like the 3d article of the treaty with Portugal. (Treaty of Washington, Feb. 10, 1831, art. v. 8 laws U. S. 948.) Here, the 'like article' is confessedly the red wines of Austria and the red wines of Spain.

"The next act of Congress is that of July 4th, 1836, (acts of 1836, ch. 359, page 244) whereby the discriminating duties are taken off from the manufactures or produce of Portugal, including Madeira, Portosanto and Azores, when imported in Portuguese vessels, so that they should only pay the same duties as if imported in vessels of the United States; and by § 2 of this act, the duty on all wines imported into the United States was reduced from and after July 30, 1836, to one-half of what was then chargeable.

"In 1840, then, when the treaty was negotiated, the classification of the act of 1828, May 24th, existed; and one-fourth of the rates of duty imposed by that act was levied, it being successively reduced by the acts of 1832 and 1836.

"Under these circumstances, what did the parties understand and what ought they to be deemed to have understood by the article of the treaty, in using the term 'like article,' as applied to the wines of Portugal?

"Wines, at that time, stood classified by the countries of their production. The wines of France, Germany, Spain, and the Mediterranean, differed greatly in value, in flavor, and in kind, as distinguished in every way; yet they certainly are classed *together* for the purpose of duty, and cannot but have been deemed a like article to each other.

"The wines of Sicily are taxed along with wines of all countries, and Sherry and Madeira are specifically and separately taxed; not, it is conceived, as being articles unlike the other wines, but merely as articles of a different *value*.

"The argument against the United States upon this act, in the construction of the treaty, is very strong. This act cannot be read without perceiving that these wines, as therein mentioned, were all considered as a 'like article,' although from a difference in value, the duty varied upon Madeira and Sherry wine.

"On Port wine the duty fell under the general classification of wines of all other countries; and it was subject to duty with wine of Sicily. It stood there, clearly, as a 'like article' with the wine of Sicily, and of all other countries not mentioned in the act.

"Sherry and Madeira were certainly treated as articles like to each other. Indeed, if this act is to be a guide to the then understanding of the United States government, all wines were clearly 'a like article.'

"Again, if resort be had to the act of 1816, although the duty on wines there is very various, according as the wines differed in value, it cannot be denied that strong corroboration is given to the position that the wines there spoken of are a like article each to the other. Thus Madeira, Burgundy, Champagne, and Tokay, are classed together, under one rate of

duty, as being articles to be viewed unitedly; and where the duty is varied in amount, still the whole law proceeds on the ground of their being all like articles; certainly it does not countenance the view that a mere difference of flavor prevents them from being *like articles*.

"And, in a general and extended view, it seems difficult in the extreme to conceive that an article of luxurious use, from the same fruit, by similar process of manufacture, devoted to the same uses, and all more or less coming as substitutes for one another in a consuming country, shall not be held in all its varieties *a like article* as between nations making a treaty.

"Portugal, looking to her wine trade, must be considered as looking to wines which could either supplant its wines, or compete with them in commerce.

"In each view, such effect would result from this being 'like articles,' and they must be deemed to have been so contemplated by her in the treaty.

"Speaking with the hesitation which belongs to questions where no authority of adjudged cases can be brought to our aid, it seems to us the fair and sound construction of the treaty, that all wines are to be treated as a like article to each other in relation to this treaty.

"Another question then arises as to the mode in which the treaty is to be carried out. If Congress has laid a duty, in form, either ad valorem or specific, the basis of which is the value of the wines, either abroad or in this country, it would seem to have complied with the treaty, if it has applied the same rule to Portuguese as to other most favored wines.

"It cannot be that, by the treaty, Congress can be restrained from an ordinary and fair mode of assessing customs, provided it apply the same rule in substance to Portugal as to other favored nations. Here would seem to be the chief difficulty of the present case. For, although by the act of 1842, Aug. 31st, the duties are specific, yet if, upon evidence, they should appear to rest on value, as the general basis, it can not be said that the treaty is infringed. But, in the absence of clear and strong proof to the contrary, it ought to be assumed, and will be, that by laying a specific duty, an ad valorem basis was not contemplated. If so, the excess of duty on Portuguese wines must be recovered back.

There is a satisfaction in giving the above opinion to the press, because the same conclusion has been come to by the present secretary of the treasury, as will appear by his decision, which we now give, but which has never before been printed.

"The tariff of 1842, imposes on certain wines of Portugal, other and higher duties, than are imposed on the red and white wines of France, Austria, Prussia, and Sardinia. On Madeira wines imported into the United States of America, that act imposes a specific duty of sixty cents per gallon, in casks, or in bottles; on Port in bottles, thirty-five cents per gallon; on Port in casks, fifteen cents per gallon.

"The same act, however, imposes on white wines of France, Austria, Prussia, and Sardinia, in casks, seven and a half cents per gallon, and in bottles twenty cents per gallon; and on red wines of France, Austria, Prussia and Sardinia, in casks, six cents per gallon; in bottles, twenty cents per gallon. This act of 1842 also imposes a duty on other wines of Sicily, in casks or bottles, fifteen cents per gallon.

"In the execution *of subsisting* treaties, the most scrupulous good faith *is to be observed: in the exposition* of them, the stipulations by the one

party in favor of the other party, are to be construed liberally and beneficially; and most strongly against the party making the stipulation.

"Wines are described by color, therein the similarity of the wines of different countries, and even of the same nation, consists.

"The value of wines are judged by their flavor, age, &c.; and in this respect, wines of the same color, produced in the same country, differ, by reason of soil, and exposure to the rays of the sun in different degrees. The same private estate produces wine, red and white, of different qualities and value from the same species of the grape, because of the difference of soil, heat, and moisture. Different countries and different climates produce wines of different values, but yet the separate articles are similar.

"To lay a higher duty upon the wines of Portugal, red and white, than that imposed upon the red and white wines respectively, of France, Austria, Prussia, and Sardinia, by specific geographical description, would render the treaty, between Her Most Faithful Majesty and the United States of America, a dead letter, denying to the former the beneficial results which superinduced the correlative stipulations in behalf of the United States.

"Under this view of the effect of the treaty with Her Most Faithful Majesty, so concluded by the United States, it is of higher and superior obligation than the act of the Congress of the United States of 1842, so far as that enaction conflicts with the treaty."

We have, thus, gone through the matter of Portuguese rights and American duties; and we are strongly inclined to believe that the reader will take up with our view of the subject.

At the time when the circular of Mr. Secretary Bibb was promulgated, some of our leading newspapers mentioned that an amount equal to four hundred thousand, or even to half a million of dollars would have to be refunded. In this there was a material error. The amount of importations of Madeira and Port wines under the tariff, from the time it went into operation, up to the issuing of Mr. Bibb's circular, was as follows:—

In the month of September, 1842, there was about 82 pipes of Madeira; but nearly all of it was re-exported, being entitled to drawback.

From the 1st day of October, 1842, to the 30th day of June, 1843, there was imported direct and indirectly, Madeira, 3,949 gallons, and of Port wine, 38,921 gallons. And from Portugal direct, during the last six months of the year 1843, an amount of 18,390 gallons of Port (150½ pipes;) but no Madeira. And, direct, in the first six months of the year 1844, (26 pipes of Madeira,) or 3,120 gallons, and of Port, also direct, (1,073½ pipes,) or 129,060 gallons. And, besides this, there may have arrived a small quantity from England and the Brazils; but all the indirect quantities during the times last aforesaid are hardly worth mentioning. So, then, we have for a dutiable article, 7,069 gallons of Madeira, and 186,371 gallons. The return duty upon which will scarcely exceed the sum of $20,000.

But, the amount of return duty is nothing when compared with justice, and we cannot close this article better than by using the words of the Committee on Foreign Affairs, when they reported a bill to put Portuguese wines on a right basis.

"It is not in the nature of a treaty between nations to enter into the "various qualities of commodities, or the different prices which they may

and. Nor is it in the spirit which it becomes nations to interpret minister treaties, to stickle on refined discriminations or arbitrary tions in carrying out its obligations. The obvious meaning is y the just meaning; and even in matters of doubt, it is far better, e the interests are not vital, to yield to the demands of others, where re satisfied that they are kindly preferred, than to withhold advan- at the expense of imputations, which may be not entirely ground- against our integrity or honor."

ART. II.—COMMERCE AND RESOURCES OF LOUISIANA.

state, the southernmost of the southern United States, was explored , by La Salle, and named Louisiana, in honor of Louis XIV. It ded north by Arkansas and Mississippi; east by Mississippi, from it is separated by Mississippi river, to the 31st degree of north lati- hence east in that parallel, to Pearl river, and down that river to ance in the Gulf of Mexico; southeast and south by the Gulf of , and west by Texas, from which it is separated by Sabine river, 32d degree of north latitude; and thence due north to 33 degrees titude, where it meets the south boundary of Arkansas. It is be- 29 and 33 deg. north latitude, and between 88 deg. 40 min. and . 25 min. west longitude, and is 250 miles long, from north to south. Gulf of Mexico, it is about 300 miles broad, and continues this or 120 or 130 miles inland, when it suddenly contracts to the width it 100 miles; and on the north boundary, it is 180 miles wide.

state is divided into thirty-eight parishes, answering to counties in er states; which, according to the official census of 1840, were as :—

EASTERN DISTRICT.	
s.	Pop.
n,	6,951
ion,	7,141
ouge, E.,	8,138
ouge, W.,	4,638
	4,237
ia,	9,414
, East,	11,893
, West,	10,910
	8,495
	10,470
e Interior,	7,303
on,	2,315
	5,142
	102,193
ines,	5,060
oupee,	7,898
ard,	3,237
les,	4,700
na,	3,525
s,	8,548
Baptist,	5,776
many,	4,598
onne,	4,410
rton,	2,649
Total,	249,641

WESTERN DISTRICT.	
Parishes.	Pop.
Avoyelles,	6,616
Caddo,	5,282
Calcasieu,	2,057
Caldwell,	2,017
Catahaula,	4,955
Claiborne,	6,185
Lafayette,	7,841
Natchitoches,	14,350
Rapides,	14,132
St. Laudry,	15,233
St. Martin's,	8,674
St. Mary's,	8,950
Union,	1,838
Washita,	4,640
Total,	109,770
Total of state,	359,411

The population in 1810, was 76,556; in 1820, 153,467; in 1830, 215,575; and in 1840 it had increased, as will be seen by the preceding table, to 352,411; of whom 162,452 were slaves. Of the free population, in 1840, 89,744 were white males, and 68,710 white females; 11,526 colored males, 13,976 colored females.

The employments of the population, in 1840, are thus classified by the census, viz:—In agriculture, 79,289; in commerce, 8,549; in manufactures and trades, 7,565; in navigating the ocean, 1,322; in navigating canals, lakes, and rivers, 662; and in the learned professions, 1,018.

In 1699, a French settlement was begun at Ibberville, by M. Ibberville; who, in the attempt to plant the country, lost his life. His efforts were followed up by M. Crozat, a man of wealth, who held the exclusive trade of the country for a number of years. About the year 1717, he transferred his interest to a chartered company, at the head of which was the celebrated John Law, whose national bank, and Mississippi speculation, involved the ruin of half the French nobility. In 1731, the company resigned the concern to the crown; who, in 1762, ceded the whole of Louisiana to Spain. In 1800, Spain re-conveyed the province to the French, of whom it was purchased by the United States, in 1803, for about $15,000,000. This purchase included all the present territory of the United States, west of the Mississippi. Soon after the purchase, the present state of Louisiana was separated from the rest of the territory, under the name of the territory of Orleans. In 1812, Louisiana was admitted to the Union as a state, and the part of West Florida west of Pearl river was annexed to it. In December, 1814, and for several days afterwards, the British made an attack upon New Orleans; but were repulsed, January 8th, 1815, by the Americans, under General Jackson, with the loss of about 3,000 men killed, wounded, and taken prisoners. The American loss is stated to have been only seven men killed, and six wounded. General Packenham, the British commander, was killed.

In 1764, British vessels began to visit the Mississippi. They would sail past the city, make fast to a tree opposite the present city of Lafayette, and trade with the citizens. The exports during the last year of its subjection to France, were $250,000; and the population of the city was 3,190. The commerce suffered by the restrictions of the Spanish. In 1785, the population of the city, exclusive of the settlements in the vicinity, was 4,980. A more liberal course of the Spanish government revived the trade of New Orleans; and French, British, and American vessels, began to visit New Orleans. In 1788, a fire consumed 900 houses. In 1791, the first company of French comedians arrived from Cape Francois, having fled from the massacre at St. Domingo. Other emigrants opened academies, the education of youth having been previously in the hands of priests and nuns. In 1792, Baron Carondelet arrived. He divided the city into four wards, and recommended lighting it, and employing watchmen. The revenue of the city did not amount to $7,000, and the lighting it required a tax of $1 12 1-2 cents on every chimney. He erected new fortifications, and had the militia trained. In 1794, the first newspaper was published in Louisiana. In 1795, permission was granted by the king to the citizens of the United States to deposit their merchandise at New Orleans, during a period of ten years. In 1796, the canal Carondelet was completed. On March 21st, 1801, Louisiana was ceded by Spain to the French republic; and on April 30th, 1803, Bona-

parte, as first consul, sold it to the United States for about $15,000,000, and it was taken possession of on the 30th of November. The population of the city did not then exceed 8,056, and of the province but 49,473; 42,000 of whom were within the present bounds of Louisiana. The duties of the custom-house, the year preceding the cession, amounted to $117,515; which would have been greater, but for the corruption of the officers. The Roman Catholic religion was the only one publicly allowed. The revenues of the city, in 1802, were $19,278. There entered the Mississippi, this year, 256 vessels; of which 18 were public armed vessels; of American, 48 ships, 63 brigs, 50 schooners, and 9 sloops; of Spanish, 14 ships, 17 brigs, 4 polacres, 64 schooners, and 1 sloop; of French, 1 brig. In 1904, New Orleans was made a port of entry and delivery, and the bayou St. John a port of delivery. A city charter was granted New Orleans in 1805. January 10th, 1812, the first steamboat arrived at the city, from Pittsburgh; having descended in 259 hours.

The whole southern border of the state, from Pearl river to the Sabine, consists either of sea-marsh or vast prairies, which occupy about one-fifth of the surface of the state; and on the borders of the streams are timbered lands. The tract about the mouths of the Mississippi, for 30 miles, is one continued swamp, destitute of trees, and covered with a species of coarse reed, four or five feet high. The prospect of the country, from the mast of a ship, is an extended and dreary waste. Along the whole border of the Gulf of Mexico, a sea-marsh extends inland, for 20 or 30 miles. Back of this, the land gradually rises a little, and constitutes the prairies. A large extent of country is annually overflowed by the Mississippi, and its outlets. From lat. 32 deg. to 31 deg., the average width of overflowed land is 20 miles; from lat. 31 deg. to the efflux of La Fourche, the width is about 40 miles. All the country below the La Fourche, with little exception, is overflowed. By a survey made by order of the government of the United States, in 1828, it was found that the river overflowed an extent of 5,000,000 of acres, a great proportion of which is at present unfit for cultivation. A part of this is covered by a heavy growth of timber, and an almost impenetrable growth of cane, and other shrubbery. This becomes dry on the retiring of the river to its natural channels, and has a soil of great fertility, and which might, by labor, be rendered fit for cultivation. There are, in some parts, basins or depressions, in which the water remains until it is evaporated, or absorbed by the earth. These, by draining, mig t constitute rice-fields. The sea-marsh is partially overflowed by the tides, and especially when driven in by the equinoxial gales. In the alluvial territory, are small bodies of prairie lands, slightly elevated, without timber, and of great fertility. More extended prairies constitute a large portion of the state. The pine woods, which are extensive, have generally a rolling surface, and a poor soil. The greater part of the prairies has a second rate soil; but some parts of those of Opelousas, and particularly of Attakapas, have great fertility, and feed extensive herds of cattle. More earth is deposited by the Mississippi in its overflow on its immedate margin, than further back; and therefore the land is higher adjoining the river, than in the rear of its banks. This alluvial margin, of a breadth from 400 yards to one and a half miles, is a rich soil; and, to prevent the river from inundating the valuable tract in the *rear, and which could* not be drained, an artificial embankment is *raised on the margin of* the river, called the *Levee*. On the east side of

the river, this embankment commences 60 miles above New Orleans, and extends down the river more than 120 miles. On the west shore, it commences at Point Coupee, 172 miles above New Orleans. Along this portion of the river, its sides present many beautiful and finely cultivated plantations, and a continued succession of pleasant residences. The country between the Mississippi, Ibberville, and Pearl rivers, in its southern parts, is generally level, and highly productive in cotton, sugar, rice, Indian corn, and indigo. The northern part has an undulating surface, and has a heavy natural growth of white, red, and yellow oak, hickory, black walnut, sassafras, magnolia, and poplar. In the northwest part, Red river, after entering the state by a single channel, and flowing about 30 miles, spreads out into a great number of channels, forming many lakes, islands, and swamps, over a space of 50 miles long, and 6 broad. Here the fallen timber, floated down by the stream, has collected, and formed the celebrated raft, which formerly extended 160 miles, obstructing the navigation of the river. Most of it has been removed by order of the general government, and the remainder will, ere long, be cleared away, opening this fine river to an extensive steamboat navigation. The bottoms on this river are from one to ten miles wide, and are of great fertility, with a natural growth of willow, cotton-wood, honey-locust, papaw, and buckeye. On the rich uplands grow elm, ash, hickory, mulberry, black walnut, with a profusion of grape-vines. On the less fertile and sandy uplands of the state, are white pitch and yellow pines, and various kinds of oak. The lower courses of Red river have been denominated the paradise of cotton-planters.

The staple productions of this state are cotton, sugar, and rice. Sugar-cane grows chiefly on the shores of the gulf, and the bayous Teche, La Fourche, and Plaquemine, and in some parts of Attakapas, south of 31 degrees north latitude. No cultivation yields a richer harvest, though the labor of the hands is severe. There is a vast amount of sugar lands not brought into cultivation. The quantity of land adapted to sugar has been computed at 250,000 acres; of rice, at 250,000 acres; and of cotton, at 2,400,000. Rice is principally confined to the banks of the Mississippi, where irrigation is easy.

There were in this state, in 1840, 98,888 horses and mules, 381,248 neat cattle, 98,072 sheep, 323,220 swine; poultry was raised to the value of $283,559. There were produced 60 bushels of wheat, 1,812 of rye, 5,952,912 of Indian corn, 107,353 of oats, 834,341 of potatoes, 119,824 pounds of tobacco, 3,604,534 of rice, 152,555,368 of cotton, 119,947,720 of sugar, 24,651 tons of hay, 49,283 pounds of wool, 1,012 of wax. The products of the dairy were valued at $153,069; of the orchard, at $11,769; of lumber, at $66,106. There were made 2,884 gallons of wine, and 2,233 barrels of tar, pitch, or turpentine.

The climate is mild, though the winters are more severe than in the same latitude on the Atlantic coast. The summers in the wet and marshy parts are unhealthy, and New Orleans has been frequently visited by the yellow fever. But a considerable portion of the state is healthy.

The Mississippi river divides the state from Mississippi for a course of 450 miles, and enters the state wholly, 350 miles from its mouth, by the course of the channel of the river, and divides into several branches or outlets; which, diverging from the main river, wind their way slowly to the Gulf of Mexico, carrying off its surplus waters in times of flood, and dividing the southern part of the state into a number of large islands.

The Atchafalaya, called here the Chaffalio, leaves the Mississippi on the west side, a little below the mouth of Red river, and is supposed to carry off as much water as Red river brings in; and, inclining to the E. of S., it enters Atchafalaya bay, in the Gulf of Mexico. The outlet Plaquemine leaves the Mississippi 128 miles below the outlet of Atchafalaya, with which the main stream at length unites. Thirty-one miles below the Plaquemine, and 81 above New Orleans, is the outlet of La Fourche, which communicates with the Gulf of Mexico. Below the La Fourche, numerous other smaller streams leave the Mississippi, at various points. On the east side of the Mississippi, the principal outlet from that river is the Ibberville, which passes to the Gulf of Mexico through lakes Maurepas, Pontchartrain, and Borgne. This outlet on the east, and Atchafalaya on the west, bound what is denominated the Delta of the Mississippi. The Mississippi is navigable for vessels of any size, though the bar at its mouth has on it but 16 or 17 feet of water. Red river crosses the state in a southeasterly direction, and enters the Mississippi 240 miles above New Orleans. Washita river runs in a southerly direction, and enters Red river a little above its entrance into the Mississippi. The other rivers are Black, Tensaw, Sabine, Calcasieu, Mermentau, Vermillion, Teche, Pearl, Amite, and Ibberville. The largest lakes are Pontchartrain, Maurepas, Borgne, Chetimaches, Mermentau, Calcasieu, and Sabine.

The vast trade of the valley of the Mississippi centres at New Orleans —a valley which, for its extent and fertility, has not its like in the world. The exports of this state amounted, in 1840, to $34,236,936; but these exports extensively belong to the great and fertile states of the great valley. Its imports were $10,673,100.

The following table, exhibiting the value of the exports and imports of Louisiana, we have compiled with care, from the reports of the secretary of the treasury, on commerce and navigation. It shows the progress of the commerce of Louisiana, from October 1st, 1820, to the present time.

Years.	Imports.	Exports.	Years.	Imports.	Exports.
1821,.....	$3,379,717	$7,272,172	1833,.....	$9,590,505	$18,941,373
1822,.....	3,817,238	7,978,645	1834,.....	13,781,809	26,557,524
1823,.....	125,770	7,779,072	1835,.....	17,519,841	36,270,823
1824,.....	4,539,769	7,928,820	1836,.....	15,117,649	37,179,828
1825,.....	4,290,034	12,582,924	1837,.....	14,020,012	35,338,697
1826,.....	4,167,521	10,284,380	1838,.....	9,496,808	31,502,248
1827,.....	4,531,645	11,728,997	1839,.....	12,044,942	33,181,167
1828,.....	6,217,881	11,947,400	1840,.....	10,673,190	34,236,936
1829,.....	6,857,209	12,386,060	1841,.....	10,256,350	34,387,483
1830,.....	7,599,083	15,488,692	1842,.....	8,033,590	28,404,149
1831,.....	9,766,693	16,761,989	1843,*....	8,170,015	26,653,924
1832,.....	8,871,653	16,530,930			

In 1840, there were 24 commercial, and 381 commission houses in Louisiana, engaged in foreign trade, with a capital of $16,770,000; 2,465 retail stores, with a capital of $14,301,024; 597 persons in the lumber trade, with a capital of 260,045; 8 persons employed in internal transportation, with 291 butchers, packers, &c., employing a capital of $144,523.

* *For nine months*, ending 30th of June, 1843.

The exports of New Orleans consist chiefly of cotton, tobacco, sugar, molasses, flour, pork, bacon, lard, beef, lead, whiskey, corn, &c. The following table shows the quantity of cotton exported from New Orleans, to the different ports in the United States and Europe, for the last five years, commencing on the 1st of September, 1839, and ending on the 31st of August in each year:—*

	Cotton—Bales.				
Whither exported.	1843-44.	1842-43.	1841-42.	1840-41.	1839-40.
Liverpool,	488,817	624,681	393,990	396,010	459,943
London,	518	61	38	304	113
Glasgow and Greenock,	21,265	35,831	15,574	20,415	26,603
Cowes, Falmouth, &c.,	14,893	15,939	10,740	9,188	13,560
Cork, Belfast, &c.,	2,182	2,926	1,108	4,393	4,549
Havre,	107,973	159,658	161,103	157,277	206,311
Bordeaux,	1,418	2,861	2,247	2,807	6,581
Marseilles,	7,462	9,982	16,992	21,933	21,989
Nantz, Cette, & Rouen,	3,127	8,374	2,930	1,914	5,609
Amsterdam,	1,360	2,593	584	.....	3,688
Rotterdam and Ghent,	512	2,173	2,907	.....	709
Bremen,	2,770	13,303	6,369	1,706	1,084
Antwerp, &c.,	8,499	17,693	5,209	2,264	7,377
Hamburg,	3,156	13,664	5,678	2,983	6,846
Gottenburg,	402	114	286	2,793	2,994
Spain and Gibraltar,	.....	401	78	561	1,508
West Indies,	33,151	21,177	12,818	19,002	30,594
Genoa, Trieste, &c.,	19,704	17,662	10,610	16,801	25,652
China,	.....	4,303	.....	.....	.....
Other foreign ports,	1,208	1,342	174	90	1,044
New York,	82,814	48,036	31,215	55,930	46,354
Boston,	72,400	73,891	54,062	81,626	54,042
Providence, R. I.,	211	674	1,910	3,132	1,811
Philadelphia,	6,919	3,253	2,846	5,721	6,195
Baltimore,	4,698	3,278	1,703	4,832	3,045
Portsmouth,	4,136	.....	2,658	9,025	5,099
Other coastwise ports,	3,280	3,000	3,716	581	6,020
Western States,	2,500	2,000	1,722	.....	.....
Total,	895,375	1,088,870	749,267	821,288	949,320

The quantity of cotton exported as above, during the five years, (from 1839 to 1844,) was distributed as follows:—

	Cotton—Bales.				
Whither exported.	1843-44.	1842-43.	1841-42.	1840-41.	1839-40.
Great Britain,	527,675	679,438	421,450	430,310	504,768
France,	119,980	180,875	132,272	183,931	240,490
North of Europe,	17,907	50,882	21,207	9,836	23,742
S. of Europe, and China,	52,855	43,543	23,506	36,364	57,754
Coastwise,	176,958	134,132	99,832	160,847	122,566
Total,	895,375	1,088,870	749,267	821,288	949,320

The exports of tobacco, during the same years, (1839 to 1844,) were as follows:—(See next page.)

* The New Orleans Commercial Intelligencer, and Merchants' Transcript, issued their customary annual statement of the commerce of New Orleans on the 1st of September, 1844. From that statement, which is prepared with great care, and general accuracy, we derive most of the tabular statements in this article.

Whither exported.	Tobacco—Hhds. 1843-44.	1842-43.	1841-42.	1840-41.	1839-40.
Liverpool,	8,808	6,788	6,930	5,252	3,827
London,	8,291	9,851	7,212	8,732	4,320
Glasgow and Greenock,	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Cowes, Falmouth, &c.,	5,424	10,798	6,827	6,681	992
Cork, Belfast, &c.,	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Havre,	4,846	4,648	4,037	4,224	3,655
Bordeaux,	1,156	2,332	1,004	814	1,107
Marseilles,	5,102	4,665	1,933	1,774	1,844
Nantz, Cette, & Rouen,	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Amsterdam,	3,775	2,700	1,138	.....	.....
Rotterdam and Ghent,	917	2,933	1,882	.....	.....
Bremen,	9,602	7,888	8,997	4,012	2,464
Antwerp, &c.,	2,178	5,657	3,690	1,219	1,090
Hamburg,	2,303	1,477	3,401	1,064	1,465
Gottenburg,	734	963	946	1,559	745
Spain and Gibraltar,	10,681	4,496	7,204	4,142	3,843
West Indies,	1,601	1,063	981	1,020	1,013
Genoa, Trieste, &c.,	1,556	1,760	550	2	44
China,	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Other foreign ports,	1,177	217	516	667	343
New York,	6,960	10,533	7,090	7,466	8,132
Boston,	2,585	3,650	2,351	3,109	2,888
Providence, R. I.,	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Philadelphia,	1,286	2,845	936	2,126	1,963
Baltimore,	1,167	2,433	208	517	219
Portsmouth,	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Other coastwise ports,	1,100	2,194	225	287	482
Western States,	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Total,	81,249	89,891	68,058	54,667	40,436

The exports of tobacco, as above, were distributed as follows:—

Whither exported.	Tobacco—Hhds. 1843-44.	1842-43.	1841-42.	1840-41.	1839-40.
Great Britain,	27,523	27,437	20,969	20,665	9,139
France,	11,104	11,645	6,974	6,812	6,606
North of Europe,	20,175	21,618	20,252	8,040	6,005
S. of Europe, and China,	14,349	7,536	9,053	5,645	5,002
Coastwise,	13,098	21,655	10,810	13,505	13,684
Total,	81,249	89,891	68,058	54,667	40,436

The following table shows the comparative arrivals, exports, and stocks of cotton and tobacco, at New Orleans, for ten years, from 1st of September to 31st of August, in each year:—

Years.	Cotton—Bales. Arrivals.	Exports.	Stocks.	Tobacco—Hhds. Arrivals.	Exports.	Stocks.
1843–44,	910,854	895,375	12,934	82,435	81,249	4,859
1842–43,	1,083,642	1,088,870	4,700	92,509	89,890	4,873
1841–42,	740,156	749,267	4,428	67,555	68,058	2,255
1840–41,	822,870	821,228	14,490	53,170	54,667	2,758
1839–40,	954,445	949,320	17,867	43,827	40,436	4,409
1838–39,	578,514	579,179	10,308	28,153	30,780	1,294
1837–38,	742,720	738,313	9,570	37,588	35,555	3,834
1836–37,	605,813	588,969	20,678	28,501	35,821	3,857
1835–36,	495,442	490,495	4,586	50,555	43,028	10,456
1834–35,	530,172	536,991	3,649	35,059	33,801	1,821

The *exports of sugar, in* each of the five years, (from 1839 to 1844,) *were*—

Whither exported.	1843-44. Hhds.	1843-44. Bbls.	1842-43. Hhds.	1842-43. Bbls.	1841-42. Hhds.	1841-42. Bbls.
New York,	11,422	217	31,549	.....	13,620	405
Philadelphia,	8,478	697	14,474	708	4,170	438
Charleston, S. C.,	1,502	.....	1,090	100	614	2
Savannah,	483	.....	240	.....	313	.....
Providence and Bristol, R. I.,	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Boston,	217	.....	2,814	.....	212	58
Baltimore,	5,492	42	8,660	663	6,504	288
Norfolk,	562	.....	610	28	364	.....
Richmond and Petersburg, Va.,	1,590	1	2,337	.....	1,419	56
Alexandria, D. C.,	280	.....	592	.....	539	.....
Mobile,	3,257	17	3,011	375	759	102
Apalachicola and Pensacola,	1,070	548	565	306	517	548
Other ports,	42	22	102	100	303	335
Total,	34,395	1,544	66,044	2,280	29,334	2,232

EXPORTS OF SUGAR—Continued.

Whither exported.	1840-41. Hhds.	1840-41. Bbls.	1839-40. Hhds.	1839-40. Bbls.
New York,	18,759	822	18,556	598
Philadelphia,	6,726	431	8,622	134
Charleston, S. C.,	1,716	1	1,513	88
Savannah,	357	39	722	.....
Providence and Bristol, R. I.,	.....	6	20	12
Boston,	422	114	951	327
Baltimore,	7,588	48	8,402	949
Norfolk,	664	48	819	553
Richmond and Petersburgh, Va.,	1,520	64	1,923	179
Alexandria, D. C.,	374	2	372	.....
Mobile,	1,530	445	2,214	315
Apalachicola and Pensacola,	566	782	947	1,567
Other ports,	304	1,298	234	1,380
Total,	40,526	4,092	45,296	6,595

The exports of molasses, in each of the five years, (from 1839 to 1844,) were—

Whither exported.	1843-44. Hhds.	1843-44. Bbls.	1842-43. Hhds.	1842-43. Bbls.	1841-42. Hhds.	1841-42. Bbls.
New York,	1,882	15,744	7,285	28,030	6,377	23,525
Philadelphia,	354	4,214	1,288	9,091	882	2,169
Charleston, S. C.,	.....	5,467	63	3,986	270	3,311
Savannah,	.....	1,254	.....	1,640	.....	886
Providence and Bristol, R. I.,	475	55	576	106	345	347
Boston,	.....	1,001	976	4,809	411	3,208
Baltimore,	586	5,231	1,162	8,459	826	11,842
Norfolk,	.....	2,039	.....	947	.....	1,242
Richmond and Petersburg, Va.,	.....	1,581	216	2,316	11	2,843
Alexandria, D. C.,	.....	350	.....	575	192	934
Mobile,	.....	2,836	.....	313	.....	4,190
Apalachicola and Pensacola,	.....	2,440	.....	2,260	.....	1,290
Other ports,	112	750	800	1,369	.....	1,378
Total,	3,409	42,962	12,366	66,901	9,314	57,165

EXPORTS OF MOLASSES—Continued.

Whither exported.	1840-41. Hhds.	1840-41. Bbls.	1839-40. Hhds.	1839-40. Bbls.
New York,	5,496	17,081	3,511	15,105
Philadelphia,	1,002	4,694	962	3,078
Charleston, S. C.,	550	5,316	.....	2,290

EXPORTS OF MOLASSES—Continued.

Whither exported.	1840-41. Hhds.	1840-41. Bbls.	1839-40. Hhds.	1839-40. Bbls.
Savannah,.....	.....	1,008	117	1,309
Providence and Bristol, R. I.,.....	208	103	99	251
Boston,.....	496	2,756	811	4,451
Baltimore,.....	1,582	7,275	1,267	5,850
Norfolk,.....	350	539	50	971
Richmond and Petersburg, Va.,.....	91	716	89	1,694
Alexandria, D. C.,.....	85	153	.....	98
Mobile,.....	.....	4,778	38	3,867
Apalachicola and Pensacola,.....	.....	1,124	51	1,710
Other ports,.....	1,424	2,661	1,942	1,704
Total,.....	11,284	48,104	8,937	42,397

We give, below, the exports of flour, pork, bacon, lard, beef, lead, and corn, for the two last years. This table includes the exports to Mobile, via the Pontchartrain railroad; but the vessels reported in the clearances as having provisions and merchandise, are not included.

EXPORTS OF FLOUR, PORK, BACON, LARD, BEEF, LEAD, WHISKEY, AND CORN, FOR TWO YEARS, FROM 1ST SEPTEMBER TO 31ST AUGUST.

1843-44.

Destination.	Flour. *Bbls.*	Pork. *Bbls.*	Bacon. *Hhds.*	Lard. *Kegs.*	Beef. *Bbls.*	Lead. *Pigs.*	Whiskey. *Bbls.*	Corn. *Sacks.*
New York,.....	48,323	219,756	5,104	324,776	9,112	264,834	2,216	44,367
Boston,.....	63,653	109,410	1,742	216,773	6,871	111,614	138	27,536
Philadelphia,.....	.....	13,702	1,718	30,493	1,042	53,901	730	.....
Baltimore,.....	.....	11,939	1,217	25,831	383	12,561	631	.....
Charleston,.....	1,305	2,255	3,986	8,924	637	.....	4,332	2,775
Oth. coastwise p'ts,	48,718	9,229	10,424	13,327	2,640	2,455	33,536	60,278
Cuba,.....	29,314	397	504	100,764	509	.....	.....	15,809
Other foreign ports,	108,679	26,491	157	151,382	15,192	154,955	.....	53,516
Total,.....	300,082	393,179	24,852	872,270	35,386	600,320	42,127	204,281

1842-43.

Destination.	Flour. *Bbls.*	Pork. *Bbls.*	Bacon. *Hhds.*	Lard. *Kegs.*	Beef. *Bbls.*	Lead. *Pigs.*	Whiskey. *Bbls.*	Corn. *Sacks.*
New York,.....	101,336	69,275	6,669	203,057	1,140	225,077	5,402	160,707
Boston,.....	81,955	60,278	1,359	115,475	561	112,670	216	166,599
Philadelphia,.....	3,540	4,794	1,363	8,953	.....	55,954	534	2,873
Baltimore,.....	67	6,881	1,343	12,630	.....	12,765	2,573	.....
Charleston,.....	1,494	137	2,906	3,441	30	.....	2,613	20,507
Oth. coastwise p'ts,	40,717	6,974	6,678	6,705	638	.....	20,663	128,266
Cuba,.....	26,747	550	255	88,607	150	510	.....	50
Other foreign ports,	82,916	10,885	2,810	298,861	1,905	135,556	135	193,314
Total,.....	338,772	159,774	23,383	737,729	4,424	542,172	32,136	672,316

The arrival of ships, barks, brigs, schooners, and steamboats, at New Orleans, for five years, from September 1st, to 31st of October, has been as follows:—

Years.	Ships.	Barks.	Brigs.	Schrs.	Total.	Steamb'ts.
1839–40,.....	560	177	435	682	1,846	1,937
1840–41,.....	595	191	325	532	1,643	2,181
1841–42,.....	599	198	279	327	1,403	2,132
1842–43,.....	579	283	582	524	2,018	2,324
1843–44,.....	*665*	256	376	389	1,686	2,570

The following table shows the receipts of the principal articles of pro-

Whither exported.	1843-44. Hhds.	1843-44. Bbls.	1842-43. Hhds.	1842-43. Bbls.	1841-42. Hhds.	1841-42. Bbls.
New York,	11,422	217	31,549	.....	13,620	405
Philadelphia,	8,478	697	14,474	708	4,170	438
Charleston, S. C.,	1,502	.....	1,090	100	614	2
Savannah,	483	.....	240	.....	313	.....
Providence and Bristol, R. I.,	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Boston,	217	.....	2,814	.....	212	58
Baltimore,	5,492	42	8,660	663	6,504	288
Norfolk,	562	.....	610	28	364	.....
Richmond and Petersburg, Va.,	1,590	1	2,337	.....	1,419	56
Alexandria, D. C.,	280	.....	592	.....	539	.....
Mobile,	3,257	17	3,011	375	759	102
Apalachicola and Pensacola,	1,070	548	565	306	517	548
Other ports,	42	22	102	100	303	335
Total,	34,395	1,544	66,044	2,280	29,334	2,232

EXPORTS OF SUGAR—Continued.

Whither exported.	1840-41. Hhds.	1840-41. Bbls.	1839-40. Hhds.	1839-40. Bbls.
New York,	18,759	822	18,556	598
Philadelphia,	6,726	431	8,622	134
Charleston, S. C.,	1,716	1	1,513	88
Savannah,	357	39	722	.....
Providence and Bristol, R. I.,	.....	8	20	12
Boston,	422	114	951	397
Baltimore,	7,588	48	8,402	942
Norfolk,	664	48	819	552
Richmond and Petersburgh, Va.,	1,520	64	1,923	179
Alexandria, D. C.,	374	2	372	.....
Mobile,	1,530	445	2,214	315
Apalachicola and Pensacola,	566	782	947	1,567
Other ports,	304	1,293	234	1,880
Total,	40,526	4,092	45,296	6,595

The exports of molasses, in each of the five years, (from 1839 to 1844,) were—

Whither exported.	1843-44. Hhds.	1843-44. Bbls.	1842-43. Hhds.	1842-43. Bbls.	1841-42. Hhds.	1841-42. Bbls.
New York,	1,882	15,744	7,285	28,030	6,377	23,525
Philadelphia,	354	4,214	1,288	9,091	882	2,169
Charleston, S. C.,	.....	5,467	63	3,986	270	3,311
Savannah,	.....	1,254	.....	1,640	.....	886
Providence and Bristol, R. I.,	475	55	576	106	345	347
Boston,	.....	1,001	976	4,809	411	3,208
Baltimore,	586	5,231	1,162	8,459	826	11,842
Norfolk,	.....	2,029	.....	947	.....	1,242
Richmond and Petersburg, Va.,	.....	1,581	216	2,316	11	2,843
Alexandria, D. C.,	.....	350	.....	575	192	934
Mobile,	.....	2,836	.....	313	.....	4,190
Apalachicola and Pensacola,	.....	2,440	.....	2,260	.....	1,290
Other ports,	112	750	800	1,369	.....	1,378
Total,	3,409	42,962	12,366	66,901	9,314	57,165

EXPORTS OF MOLASSES—Continued.

Whither exported.	1840-41. Hhds.	1840-41. Bbls.	1839-40. Hhds.	1839-40. Bbls.
New York,	5,496	17,081	3,511	15,105
Philadelphia,	1,002	4,694	962	3,078
Charleston, S. C.,	550	5,216	.....	2,300

EXPORTS OF MOLASSES—Continued.

Whither exported.	1840-41. Hhds.	1840-41. Bbls.	1839-40. Hhds.	1839-40. Bbls.
Savannah,.....	.....	1,008	117	1,309
Providence and Bristol, R. I.,.....	208	103	99	251
Boston,.....	496	2,756	811	4,451
Baltimore,.....	1,582	7,275	1,267	5,850
Norfolk,.....	350	539	50	971
Richmond and Petersburg, Va.,.....	91	716	89	1,694
Alexandria, D. C.,.....	85	153	.....	98
Mobile,.....	.....	4,778	38	3,867
Apalachicola and Pensacola,.....	.....	1,124	51	1,710
Other ports,.....	1,424	2,661	1,942	1,704
Total,.....	11,284	48,104	8,937	42,397

We give, below, the exports of flour, pork, bacon, lard, beef, lead, and corn, for the two last years. This table includes the exports to Mobile, via the Pontchartrain railroad; but the vessels reported in the clearances as having provisions and merchandise, are not included.

EXPORTS OF FLOUR, PORK, BACON, LARD, BEEF, LEAD, WHISKEY, AND CORN, FOR TWO YEARS, FROM 1ST SEPTEMBER TO 31ST AUGUST.

1843-44.

Destination.	Flour. *Bbls.*	Pork. *Bbls.*	Bacon. *Hhds.*	Lard. *Kegs.*	Beef. *Bbls.*	Lead. *Pigs.*	Whiskey. *Bbls.*	Corn. *Sacks.*
New York,.....	48,323	219,756	5,104	324,776	9,112	264,834	2,216	44,367
Boston,.....	63,653	109,410	1,742	216,773	5,871	111,614	138	27,536
Philadelphia,.....	.....	13,702	1,718	30,493	1,042	53,901	730	.....
Baltimore,.....	.....	11,939	1,217	25,831	383	12,561	631	.....
Charleston,.....	1,305	2,255	3,986	8,924	637	.....	4,332	2,775
Oth. coastwise p'ts,	48,718	9,229	10,424	13,327	2,640	2,455	33,536	60,278
Cuba,.....	29,314	397	504	100,764	509	.....	.....	15,809
Other foreign ports,	108,679	26,491	157	151,382	15,192	154,955	.....	53,516
Total,.....	300,082	393,179	24,852	872,270	35,386	600,320	42,127	204,281

1842-43.

Destination.	Flour. *Bbls.*	Pork. *Bbls.*	Bacon. *Hhds.*	Lard. *Kegs.*	Beef. *Bbls.*	Lead. *Pigs.*	Whiskey. *Bbls.*	Corn. *Sacks.*
New York,.....	101,336	69,275	6,669	203,057	1,140	225,077	5,402	160,707
Boston,.....	81,955	60,278	1,359	115,475	561	112,670	216	166,599
Philadelphia,.....	3,540	4,794	1,363	8,953	.....	55,954	534	2,873
Baltimore,.....	67	6,881	1,343	12,630	.....	12,765	2,573	.....
Charleston,.....	1,494	137	2,906	3,441	30	.....	2,613	20,507
Oth. coastwise p'ts,	40,717	6,974	6,678	6,705	638	.....	20,663	128,266
Cuba,.....	26,747	550	255	88,607	150	510	.....	50
Other foreign ports,	82,916	10,885	2,810	298,861	1,905	135,556	135	193,314
Total,.....	338,772	159,774	23,383	737,729	4,424	542,172	32,136	672,316

The arrival of ships, barks, brigs, schooners, and steamboats, at New Orleans, for five years, from September 1st, to 31st of October, has been as follows:—

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1841–42,.....	599	198	279	327	1,403	2,132
1842–43,.....	579	283	582	524	2,018	2,324
1843–44,.....	665	256	376	389	1,686	2,570

The following table shows the receipts of the principal articles of pro-

duce from the interior, into New Orleans, during the year ending 31st of August, 1844, with their estimated average, and total value :—*

Articles.	Amount.	Average.	Value.
Apples,.....bbls.	43,969	$2 00	$87,938
Bacon, assorted,.....hhds. and casks	19,568	25 00	479,075
Bacon, assorted,.....boxes	556	14 00	7,784
Bacon hams,.....hhds. and tcs.	19,070	30 00	572,100
Bacon, in bulk,.....lbs.	1,203,824	3	36,114
Bagging,.....pieces	100,216	10	1,002,160
Bale rope,.....coils	83,684	6 00	502,104
Beans,.....bbls.	7,619	3 50	26,666
Butter,.....kegs and firkins	18,881	4 00	75,524
Butter,.....bbls.	500	12 00	6,000
Beeswax,.....bbls.	1,909	40 00	76,360
Beeswax,.....lbs.	510	27	135
Beef,.....bbls.	49,363	4 50	222,133
Beef,.....hhds.	480	33 00	15,840
Beef, dried,.....lbs.	55,610	6	3,336
Buffalo robes,.....packs	4,901	40 00	217,800
Cotton,.....bales	910,854	32 00	29,147,308
Corn meal,.....bbls.	3,769	3 00	11,307
Corn, in ear,.....	165,364	50	82,677
Corn, shelled,.....sacks	360,052	90	324,468
Cheese,.....casks	12,583	12 00	150,996
Candles,.....boxes	3,913	3 00	10,239
Cider,.....bbls.	1,419	3 50	4,961
Coal, western,.....	227,788	45	102,498
Dried apples and peaches,.....	2,001	2 50	5,002
Feathers,.....bags	4,568	15 00	67,860
Flaxseed,.....tcs.	4,273	7 50	32,047
Flour,.....bbls.	502,507	4 00	2,016,028
Furs,.....hhds., bundles, and boxes	.....	.....	800,000
Hemp,.....bundles	38,062	11 00	418,682
Hides,.....	76,490	1 25	95,512
Hay,.....	35,132	2 00	70,264
Iron, pig,.....tons	100	25 00	2,500
Lard,.....hhds.	212	45 00	9,540
Lard,.....bbls.	119,717	11 00	1,316,887
Lard,.....kegs	373,341	2 25	840,017
Leather,.....bundles	1,785	18 00	32,130
Lime, western,.....bbls.	3,767	1 00	3,767
Lead,.....pigs	639,269	2 15	1,374,428
Lead, bar,.....kegs and boxes	851	12 00	10,212
Molasses, (estimated crop,.....gallons	5,000,000	20 00	1,000,000
Oats,.....bbls.	130,432	75	97,824
Onions,.....	6,443	2 00	12,886
Oil, linseed,.....	2,260	30 00	67,800
Oil, castor,.....	2,757	32 00	88,224
Oil, lard,.....	2,647	20 00	52,940
Peach brandy,.....	49	13 00	637
Potatoes,.....	56,587	2 00	113,174
Pork,.....	412,928	6 50	2,684,032
Pork,.....hhds.	8,800	20 00	176,005
Pork, in bulk,.....lbs.	7,792,000	3½	243,720
Porter and ale,.....bbls.	604	5 00	3,020
Packing yarn,.....reels	1,164	4 00	4,656
Skins, deer,.....packs	1,939	25 00	48,475
Skins, bear,.....	69	15 00	1,035
Shot,.....kegs	4,714	13 00	61,282

* *In the* Merchants' Magazine, Vol. V., 1841, page 475 to 478, we gave a similar table for each of the ten years, from 1832 to 1841; and in Vol. VII., page 391, a similar statement for 1842. In Vol. IX., page 569, also a similar statement for 1842–43.

Articles.	Amount.	Average.	Value.
Soap,.....boxes	7,399	$3 00	$22,197
Staves,.....No.	1,362,000	25 00	3,405,000
Sugar, (estimated crop,).....hhds.	140,316	60 00	8,418,960
Spanish moss,.....bales	2,347	6 00	14,622
Tallow,..... bbls.	7,323	13 50	98,810
Tobacco, leaf,.....hhds.	70,435	40 00	2,817,400
Tobacco, strips,.....	12,000	100 00	1,200,000
Tobacco, chewing,.....kegs and boxes	7,695	12 00	92,540
Tobacco,.....bdles	4,771	2 50	11,927
Twine,.....bundles and boxes	2,098	5 00	10,495
Vinegar,.....bbls.	318	2 50	795
Whiskey,.....	66,947	7 50	652,102
Window glass,.....boxes	2,066	4 00	8,264
Wheat,.....bbls. and sacks	86,014	2 25	193,531
Other various articles, estimated at.....			4,000,000
Total value,.....			$65,863,866
Total in 1842–43,.....			53,726,054
Total in 1841–42,.....			45,716,045

The manufactures of Louisiana are less considerable. Home-made, or family manufactures, amounted to $65,190; two cotton factories, with 706 spindles, employed 23 persons, producing articles to the amount of $18,900, with a capital of $22,000; six furnaces produced 1,400 tons of cast iron, and two forges produced 1,366 tons of bar iron, employing 145 persons, and a capital of $357,000; 25 tanneries employed 88 persons, and a capital of $132,025; seven other manufactories of leather, as saddleries, &c., produced articles to the amount of $108,500, with a capital of $89,550; one pottery employed 18 persons, producing articles to the amount of $1,000, with a capital of $3,000; five sugar refineries produced to the amount of $770,000; 101 persons produced confectionary to the amount of $20,000; machinery was produced to the amount of $5,000, and hardware and cutlery to the amount of $30,000; 51 persons produced carriages and wagons to the amount of $23,350, employing a capital of $15,789; mills of various kinds produced articles to the amount of $706,785, employing 972 persons, and a capital of $1,870,795; vessels were built to the amount of $80,500; 129 persons manufactured furniture to the amount of $2,300, with a capital of $576,050; five distilleries produced 285,520 gallons, and one brewery 2,400 gallons, employing 27 persons, and a capital of $110,000; 75 persons manufactured 2,202,200 pounds of soap, 3,500,030 pounds of tallow candles, and 4,000 pounds of wax or spermaceti candles, with a capital of $115,500; 248 brick or stone houses, and 619 wooden houses, were built by 1,484 persons, and cost $2,736,944; 35 printing-offices, five binderies, 11 daily, 21 weekly, and two semi-weekly newspapers, and three periodicals, employed 392 persons, and a capital of $193,700. The total amount of capital employed in manufactures, was $6,430,699.

At the commencement of 1840, the state had 16 banks, with 31 branches, with an aggregate capital of $41,736,766, and a circulation of $4,345,533. In 1842, the state debt amounted to $20,820,889. The public debt consists almost entirely of state bonds, issued to the different banks, which bonds have been sold in Europe; and the proceeds constitute the capitals of the banks, which are loaned to the stockholders on mortgages of their landed property. These mortgages are estimated to be worth *$25,400,000.*

Several works of internal improvement have been undertaken. Post-

chartrain railroad extends from New Orleans four and a half miles, to Lake Pontchartrain, and cost originally $200,000; and, with its improvements, $500,000. West Feliciana railroad extends from St. Francisville, on Mississippi river, twenty miles, to Woodville, Miss. Orleans-street railroad, through Orleans-street, is one and a half miles long, and connects New Orleans with the bayou St. Johns, and cost $12,000. New Orleans and Carrolton railroad extends from New Orleans six and a half miles, to Carrolton, passing through Lafayette. It has city branches, making its whole length eleven and a half miles. Various other railroads and canals have been projected, and some work has been done upon them, but they are at present suspended.

New Orleans,* the commercial capital of the state, is situated on the left bank of the Mississippi; which, by a singular bend, causes the city to be on its N. W. side, facing the S. E. The city is built on an inclined plane, descending gently from the river towards the swamp in the rear; so that, when the Mississippi is full, the streets are three or four feet below the surface of the river. To prevent inundation, an artificial embankment, called the *Levee*, has been raised at a great expense, extending from Fort Plaquemine, 43 miles below the city, to 120 miles above it, which is 15 feet wide, and 4 feet high. Directly in front of the city, it affords a very pleasant walk. The position of New Orleans, as a vast commercial emporium, is unrivalled; for the Mississippi, with its numerous tributaries, brings to it for a market the products of 20,000 miles of navigation, and the immense resources of the great valley are yet but partially developed. The city proper is in the form of a parallelogram, running along the river 1,320 yards, and extending back 700 yards. This portion of the city is traversed by 22 streets, forming 84 principal, and 14 minor squares. The whole extent of the city, including its incorporated fauxbourgs, is not less than five miles parallel with the river, and it extends perpendicularly to it, from a quarter to three-quarters of a mile; and to the bayou St. John, two miles. The houses are principally of brick, except some of the ancient and dilapidated dwellings in the heart of the city, and some new ones in the outskirts. The modern buildings, particularly in the upper parts of the city, or Second Municipality, are generally three and four stories high, with elegant and substantial granite fronts. Many of the houses in the outer parts are surrounded with gardens, and ornamented with orange-trees. The view of the city from the river, in ascending or descending, is beautiful; and on entering it, the stranger finds it difficult to believe that he has arrived at an American city. This remark applies especially to the central and lower parts, where the older buildings are ancient, and of foreign construction; where the manners, customs, and language, are so various; the population being very nearly equally made up of Americans, French, Creoles, and Spaniards, with a mixture of almost every nation on the globe. During the business season, extending from the first of November until July, the *Levee*, in its whole extent, is crowded with vessels of all sizes, from all quarters of the world; with hundreds of large and splendid steamboats, and numerous barges and flat-boats, &c. Nothing can present a more busy, bustling scene, than the levee at this time; the loading and unloading of vessels and steamboats, with 1,500 drays transporting tobacco, cotton, sugar, and the various and immense produce of the far west. In 1836, the legislature passed an act

* Harper's edition of M'Culloch.

dividing the city into three municipalities, ranking them according to their population. The first includes the city proper, extending, with that width, from the river back to Lake Pontchartrain, and occupying the centre; the second adjoining it above, and the third below, both extending from the river to the lake. Each municipality has a distinct council for the management of its internal affairs, which do not encroach on the general government.

New Orleans is often familiarly called the Crescent city, from its form; for, though the streets are straight, those which follow the river have two turns at large angles, giving it something of this form. The river, opposite to the city, is half a mile wide, and from 100 to 160 feet deep, and it preserves the same width to near its entrance into the Gulf of Mexico. On the bar at its mouth it has a depth of from 13 1-2 to 16 feet of water, with a soft muddy bottom. Large and powerful steam tow-boats, some of which will tow six large vessels, are constantly employed, to facilitate the passage of vessels to and from the gulf. A canal, four and a half miles long, leads from a basin within the city to Lake Pontchartrain, through the bayou St. John. Through this canal, the trade of the country bordering on Lake Pontchartrain and Borgne, and all the coast of the north part of the Gulf of Mexico, as far as Florida, comes to the city, and a considerable fleet of sloops is often seen in the basin. A railroad, also, four and a half miles long, connects the city with Lake Pontchartrain, which will probably supersede the use of the canal. A harbor is formed in the lake, at the termination of the railroad, and a considerable village is there springing up. The facilities for trade are great, and well improved. The exports, including the foreign and coasting trade, are not less than $40,000,000, which are greater than those of any other city in the United States; but its imports are vastly less. Much of the western country, which exports its produce by the way of New Orleans, imports its goods from New York. In 1842, 740,267 bales of cotton were exported to foreign ports, and coastwise. New Orleans is growing rapidly, but will never probably equal New York; though it is very likely to become the second city in the Union. The licensed and enrolled tonnage, in 1840, was 126,613. Its unhealthiness is against it, though this has often been exaggerated; and the same is true of its morals. It is said to be an orderly and peaceable city, and its inhabitants are distinguished for their politeness, hospitality, and kindness to the distressed.

According to the census of 1840, there were 8 commercial, and 375 commission houses in foreign trade, with a capital of $16,490,000; 1,881 retail stores, with a capital of $11,018,225; 32 lumber-yards, with a capital of $67,800; 6 furnaces, with a capital of $355,000; hardware was manufactured to the amount of $30,000; one cotton factory, with 700 spindles, employed a capital of $20,000; tobacco manufactures employed a capital of $60,000; 1 tannery had a capital of $50,000; 2 distilleries employed a capital of $56,000; 3 sugar refineries produced to the amount of $700,000; 3 steam saw-mills had a capital of $175,000; 18 printing-offices, 5 binderies, 9 daily, 6 weekly, and 2 semi-weekly newspapers, employed a capital of $162,200; 201 brick or stone houses, and 210 wooden houses, were built, at a cost of $2,234,300. The total capital employed in manufactures was $1,774,200. There were 2 colleges, with 105 students; 10 academies, with 440 students; 25 schools, with 975 scholars.

Art. III.—BANKING IN THE UNITED STATES.

The currency of our country is a subject that has long been a prominent topic of discussion, and it must always exercise an important bearing upon the prosperity of the nation. It may be considered, indeed, the most important agent of mercantile enterprise, being the representative of value, the standard that regulates the exchange of all kinds of property; and its solidity and permanence tend to furnish a stimulus to labor, while its influence circulates throughout the entire circle of the community. It is well known that among the ancients, articles of various sorts have been employed as instruments of commerce and exchange; for example, a species of shells was used for this purpose in some parts of the coast of India, iron was the instrument of commerce among the Spartans, and copper among the Romans.* Yet, with the commercial nations of modern times, the use of gold, silver, and copper coin has been adopted, as the representative of value, and the medium of exchange. The benefit and design of money is obvious. From the various mercantile operations of men, numerous individuals have different articles to sell, and as the vendor may not wish any thing from the purchaser in exchange for the things sold, money is employed as a portable object, of well known and standard value, and a proper medium of exchange. This money may be stamped coin, of gold, silver, or copper the two former of which, by the constitution, are the only legal tender for the payment of debts; or it may be bank bills that are as good as coin when they can command it, these bank bills being the promissory notes of corporations.

Paper money has comprised a considerable portion of the circulating medium of the country since the year 1690, and its use has come down in increased amount, and in proportion as business has expanded, to the present time. During our colonial dependence, the paper money that was then circulated, consisted of what were denominated bills of credit, issued by the colonies, which pledged their faith for the ultimate payment of those bills. They were made receivable for debts due to the government, and also a legal tender for private debts, until it was ultimately prohibited by act of parliament. Their issue was first made by Massachusetts, which had incurred expenses in an unfortunate expedition against Quebec, then a colony of France, beyond its means of payment, during the year 1690, and those bills were subsequently circulated by the other colonies of what now constitutes the Union. They were, however, called in from time to time, by taxes, and were receivable by the government in the payment of those taxes. The colonial bills thus issued, soon, however, became depreciated, and less in value than gold or silver throughout the colonies. Yet they were denominated lawful money, under the valuation of six shillings for a silver dollar in the New England colonies, in New York, at eight shillings, and in Pennsylvania at seven shillings and sixpence, which valuation constitutes the basis of the different currencies of those states at the present time. In consequence of the excessive issues of these bills, their value rapidly depreciated both in the north and the south. Their circulation was in fact increased in 1745, by the colony of Massachusetts, to the amount of two or three millions of pounds, in order to pay certain

* Smith's Wealth of Nations.

expenses of an expedition against Louisburg, besides other liabilities incurred in the hostile preparations against France; and this increased issue occasioned so great a depreciation, that, in the year 1748, the value of eleven hundred pounds of those bills was only one hundred pounds sterling.* A large amount was likewise issued by North and South Carolina in consequence of their wars with the Indians. The sum of one hundred and eighty thousand pounds sterling was, moreover, paid by Great Britain to the state of Massachusetts, for its expenses in the expedition against Louisburg, and the colony with that sum redeemed its bills, at the rate of fifty shillings for each ounce of silver.*

The occurrence of the Revolution, when the country was laboring under severe pecuniary depression, produced the issue, by the colonies, of what was denominated "Continental money." Bills of credit to the amount of about three millions of dollars, were in 1775 issued by the Colonial Congress, and to this amount an increase was subsequently added. Although they were made by the colonial legislature a legal tender for the payment of debts, the refusal to receive them being a forfeiture of the debt itself, their depreciation was proportioned to the increase of the issues. Yet it was in 1777, that this depreciation began seriously to be felt; and this was not strange, for two years after, in 1779, the amount of these bills in circulation was one hundred and sixty million of dollars, and it would probably have been increased, had not Congress, during that year, passed an act limiting its circulation to two hundred millions, an amount that was issued before its close. At that period it is well known that the country was in a depressed state. The necessary consequence of this excess of issues was accordingly a large depreciation, and in 1780 they had nearly ceased to circulate. The result is obvious. The quantity in market prevented their redemption at par, and at last, one hundred dollars of bills were frequently given for one genuine dollar; those that were redeemed at all, being called in at that rate, under the funding system established by the government.†

The first national bank established in the country went into operation in December, 1781, under the auspices of "the President and Directors of the Bank of North America," and was created by Congress at the suggestion of Robert Morris, the superintendent of Finance. The Bank of North America was instituted and incorporated by ordinance, under the articles of confederation. Possessing a capital of four hundred thousand dollars, it contributed, under the judicious management of its first projector and his associates, to relieve, in the measure which its limited resources would permit, the financial depression of the country. But, notwithstanding the establishment of this institution, the scarcity of money after the peace of 1783 became so great in consequence of the depressed state of American commerce, and the want of an energetic national government, that resort was again had to paper money and tender laws by some of the states; and, indeed, personal property was sometimes made a tender in the payment of individual debts, the value of which was appraised by individuals. The result of those measures was to injure rather than to benefit the condition of things, and to hasten the organization of the constitution, by which the states were prohibited from issuing bills of credit, or making any thing but gold and silver a legal tender in the payment of

* *Holmes' Annals.* † Pitkin's Statistics.

debts. The national government was, however, soon organized, and only two millions of dollars constituted the banking capital of the nation. This capital was embraced in the bank of North America, to which allusion has been made, the bank of New York, that was located in the city of New York, and the bank of Massachusetts, in the city of Boston.

The establishment of a national bank, by national authority, was strongly recommended by Alexander Hamilton, the secretary of the treasury, in 1790, as necessary for the proper management of the finances of the government, and the support of public credit. At this period commenced the constitutional objections to the establishment of the institution that have been urged with more or less zeal through successive administrations, down to the present time. It was opposed on the ground that the government was restricted to the exercise only of those powers specified in the constitution; that the power to incorporate a bank was not one of them; and that the power given to Congress to pass all laws necessary to execute the specified powers must be confined to all the necessary means to accomplish the end incident to the nature of the specified powers. Upon the other side it was contended that incidental as well as specified powers belonged to the government; that where general objects were stated as within the province of the government, all the usual means necessary to accomplish those objects, were incidental to them; and that a bank was a well-known and usual instrument for accomplishing the objects specified by the constitution. It was, moreover, maintained by the opponents of the bank, that the power to incorporate banking institutions was not among the enumerated powers, and that to go beyond the specified powers prescribed by the constitution, was to take possession of a broad, undefined and dangerous field of jurisdiction. The bank bill having passed the two houses of Congress, it was discussed, so far as its constitutionality was concerned, with extraordinary zeal in the executive cabinet. The secretary of state and the attorney general considered that Congress had transcended its powers; but a contrary opinion was maintained by the secretary of the treasury. After profound and able debates by his cabinet, the question was referred to President Washington, and he gave it as his deliberate conviction that the power was invested in the government by the constitution to incorporate a bank, and in conformity therewith the bank was established.*

The advantages that had been experienced by those institutions elsewhere, and the benefits which were experienced by the former bank of North America, induced the incorporation of this institution on the 25th of February, 1794, and it soon went into operation. The capital of the bank, thus incorporated, was ten millions of dollars, of which eight millions was to be subscribed by individuals, and two millions by the United States. Two millions of the amount subscribed by individuals was to be paid in specie, and six millions in six per cent stock of the United States. The bank was to continue in operation until the fourth of March, 1811, and in the meantime no other national bank was to be established. In order to show the advance of its stock, it may be stated that during the period of its existence, shares were sold, making a total profit of $671,000. It has been alleged, and this from sources entitled to credit, that the institution, *thus* established, was beneficial to the community, as it certainly was to

* Kent's Commentaries, Vol. I. p. 251.

the stockholders, since it furnished an annual average dividend of eight and a half per cent.

On the expiration of the charter of the bank in 1811, numerous projects were agitated for the purpose of its renewal. As early as the spring of 1808, the stockholders had presented a memorial to Congress for that object, and the secretary of the treasury, Mr. Gallatin, to whom the matter had been referred, made a report, during the following year, favorable to the measure, but without success. Various plans were at the same time proposed for the re-establishment of a bank of the United States, but, in consequence of the excited state of party feeling, no measures were adopted for this purpose. War soon followed, and the state banks, which had at this period increased to nearly ninety, established in most of the states, and possessing a capital of more than forty millions of dollars, not only furnished to the government the greater part of its loans in order to carry on the war, but aided it essentially in the collection and disbursement of the revenue. Increased issues of paper were in consequence required, and the depression of commerce, consequent on that event, induced the banks south of New England to stop the payment of specie for their bills. A necessary depreciation followed, and the government was unable to procure loans for the prosecution of the war, excepting upon very disadvantageous terms.

A second national bank was soon alleged to be necessary, in order to relieve the financial embarrassment of the country. During the session of Congress of September, 1814, Mr. Dallas, then secretary of the treasury, submitted a plan for a national bank, holding such an institution proper for carrying into execution some of the most important powers vested in Congress, and also useful in promoting the general welfare. In urging the importance of this measure, the secretary of the treasury alleged, that its direct tendency would be to restore and continue an uniform national currency, declaring, at the same time, that this object could not be effected by the state banks. The nation, as has been stated, had been severely laboring under the evils of a disordered currency, and it felt disposed to organize an institution that might, if possible, afford relief and establish the credit of the country upon a solid foundation.

During the winter of 1816, the last bank of the United States having been chartered, went into operation without much opposition upon constitutional grounds, although some objections were urged against minor features of the bill, regarding, among other subjects, the amount of capital and the agency of the government in the management of its concerns. The capital of the bank was thirty-five millions of dollars, which was divided into three hundred and fifty thousand shares, each of one hundred dollars. Seven millions of dollars, or seven thousand shares, were to be subscribed by the United States, and to be made payable in five per cent stock, which was redeemable at the pleasure of the government, and the remainder by individuals, companies or corporations, of which seven millions were to be paid in gold and silver, and twenty-one million in the funded debt of the United States, the funded debt thus subscribed being redeemable at pleasure. The bank was to be continued until the third of March, 1836, and no other national bank was to be established during that time. The Directors consisted of twenty-five, of whom five were to be appointed by the President of the United States and the Senate, and twenty by the individual stockholders. A board for the transaction of business was to con-

sist of not less than seven directors. The debts of the bank were not to exceed thirty-five millions of dollars above the deposites, and no loan was to be made to the government of an amount exceeding five hundred thousand dollars, nor to any state, of an amount exceeding fifty thousand dollars, nor to any foreign prince or state, unless authorized by law; nor was any foreigner permitted to be a director. The directors were authorized to establish offices of discount and deposit in the District of Columbia, and in other places that they might think proper. They were to furnish the heads of the treasury department weekly statements, if such statements were required, of the amount of capital and debts due, money deposited, notes in circulation, and specie on hand; the head of the department having the right to inspect such general accounts in the books of the bank as related to such statements, but not the accounts of private individuals with the bank. No foreigner was permitted to vote for a director, nor was the corporation allowed to issue any note of a less amount than five dollars.*

In all payments to the general government, the notes of the bank, payable on demand, were made receivable, unless otherwise directed by act of Congress, and the money of the bank was to be deposited in the bank or its branches, unless the secretary of the treasury should otherwise order, in which case he was required to lay before Congress the reason for such order. The bank was, moreover, required to pay a bonus of one million five hundred thousand dollars to the government, and to distribute the funds of the government in payment of the public creditors, without expense, when required by the secretary of the treasury. It was also to perform the duty of commissioner of loans for the several states, when required by law, and was subjected to pay twelve per cent interest on deposits or notes, from the time of refusal, or neglect to pay the same according to contract. It was, moreover, made lawful by the charter, for either house of Congress to inspect the books, and to examine into the proceedings of the bank, and to report whether the provisions of the charter had been violated. On the report of such committee, or whenever the President of the United States should have reason to believe that the charter had been violated, it was made lawful for Congress to direct, or for the President to order a *scire facias* to be issued out of the circuit court of the district of Pennsylvania, in order to try the question whether the charter had been forfeited. These were the general provisions of the last bank.

The bank, thus organized, went into operation, encountering numerous difficulties connected with a disordered currency. In order to provide against any future exigency, a special agent was sent to Europe, by the directors, and a large amount of specie was imported from abroad. From the 30th of July, 1817, to December, 1818, seven million, three hundred and eleven thousand, seven hundred and fifty dollars in coin were brought into this country, for the institution, at an expense of five hundred and twenty-five thousand, two hundred and seventy-seven dollars, including the loss of interest and premium. About this period, a scheme of stock-jobbing in the affairs of the bank was entered into by some of the directors, that was injurious to the interests of the bank as well as the public. A considerable amount of the money of the bank was used in loans to those individuals, who pledged the very stock purchased with the loan, at one

* Pitkin's Statistics.

hundred and twenty-five dollars per share. In consequence of these speculations, the price of shares during the month of September, 1817, advanced to one hundred and fifty-six dollars and a half; but in December, 1818, they fell to one hundred and ten dollars per share, as soon as the scheme had exploded. Between two and three millions of dollars were thus lost to the bank through this mismanagement; so that for a long time it was unable to make any dividends. But, on a change of its president and directors, the bank soon recovered from its losses. Between three and four hundred millions of dollars of the public money had been collected and received in its vaults within a period of sixteen years; and this amount had been disbursed and distributed through the country in the various expenses of the government, in the principal and interest of the public debt, government pensions, and other matters of like character. Possessing twenty-five branches, scattered throughout different parts of the Union, it had furnished loans to enterprising individuals in the various branches of commercial and mercantile pursuits, facilities for foreign and domestic remittances, and frequent credits in Europe to those engaged in foreign trade. On the first day of January, 1833, the directors of the bank, in order to give to the committee of ways and means, appointed by Congress, information regarding its actual condition, furnished a view of its state at that time, a condensed abstract from which we here subjoin.*

CLAIMS AGAINST THE BANK.

The notes in circulation,	$17,459,571 79
The deposits, public and private,	13,547,517 95
The debt to the holders of the funded debt of the United States, for principal and interest,	6,723,703 16
Total,	$37,807,322 74

ITS RESOURCES.

Specie,	$8,951,847 60
Notes of state banks,	2,291,655 04
Balances due by state banks,	1,596,252 08
Funds in Europe, and foreign bills of exchange,	3,190,225 43
Real estate,	3,036,241 52
Debts due by individuals on notes discounted,	43,626,870 32
" " on dom. bills of exchange,	18,069,043 25
Mortgages, &c.,	103,330 75
Total,	$80,865,465 99
Claims as above deducted,	37,807,322 74
And there remained, according to this estimate, a surplus of	$43,058,143 25

In accordance with that estimate, the funds of individuals as well as those of the government, continued to be entrusted to its vaults; and the price of the stock indicated public confidence in its condition and management. In loans and discounts, by the actual distribution and application of its capital, the southern and western states, that is, the states south and west of Philadelphia had shared an amount exceeding forty-three millions of dollars, in May of 1832, which were then out. In the states lying upon the Mississippi and its waters, it had exceeded thirty millions of dollars, of which, nineteen or twenty were in the discount of promissory notes, and the residue was composed of discounts of bills of exchange, foreign

* Pitkin's Statistics.

and domestic.* The executive of the United States, (President Jackson,) in a message of December, 1832, not only called in question the constitutionality and expediency of the bank, but also its solvency; and his policy soon showed a disposition to remove the governmental deposits from its vaults. This was done in 1833. In a very short time, the treasury withdrew the sum of eight million of dollars, within a fraction. The bank was, in consequence, obliged to strengthen itself, and the state banks followed the example, by endeavoring to strengthen themselves, and the amount of credit upon which the business of the country was prosecuted, was suddenly diminished to a great extent. Property declined in value. Thousands of failures occurred in consequence of the want of bank accommodations. Thousands maintained their stand only by enormous sacrifices. Public works and individual enterprises stood still. The means of labor were cut off from those who most desired it, and a general pecuniary distress seemed to pervade the country.

When it was finally settled that no re-charter of the national bank was to be obtained, a plan was projected to combine the advantages of the long established correspondence, name, and machinery of the former bank, by incorporating its stock with a new institution, under the name of "The President, Directors, and Company of the Bank of the United States of Pennsylvania," which was chartered on the 18th of February, 1836, by the legislature of that state. The transfer of the funds of the old institution was made into the new state bank. More than fifteen per cent was restored to the government, beyond its subscription, at the period of the transfer; and three and a half per cent had been paid to the same source every six months, for a long course of years. In consequence of the advantages to be derived from the new state institution, the stockholders were content to subscribe anew in the state bank; and it is alleged that all of them might, at this juncture, have received their investments back, not only at par, but with a large advance. This the government actually did; and no power was possessed by the government, that was not equally enjoyed by every individual. Indeed, it was alleged by Mr. Nicholas Biddle, (who had held the administration of the affairs of the state bank, as he had done that of the national bank,) as recently as April, 1841, that the state institution was prosperous down to the end of his administration in March, 1839. The downfall of the state institution, however, soon occurred, bringing disaster upon a large circle of stockholders who had entrusted their funds to its keeping. Without entering into a consideration of the particular causes of that event, it may be remarked that the period in which it occurred was a crisis bringing disaster upon the greater part of the stocks throughout the country; and it is believed that its fall arose out of causes which had not acted upon the national bank. From March, 1839, to March, 1841, the stock of the state bank declined from 116, to 17 per cent; and this loss fell in considerable part upon those who had been the original stockholders of the bank of the United States, from which this was created. But that new institution did not rest upon the broad foundation of national aid; it was not backed by the national confidence; it had a more local and a narrow basis, and it is believed by many judicious and honest minds, that the facts to which we have alluded, were among *the* principal causes of its downfall.

* Webster's Speeches; vol. 2, p. 100.

We would now direct the attention of our readers to the progress of the state banks that were created during the existence of the last bank of the United States. It has been already seen that only three state banks were in being at the commencement of the government, holding a capital of about two millions of dollars. On the first of January, 1811, their number had increased to eighty-eight, possessing an aggregate capital of forty-two million, six hundred and ten thousand dollars; the total banking capital of the country, at that time, being more than fifty-two million of dollars. From that year to 1815, one hundred and twenty new state banks went into operation, with a capital of forty millions of dollars. So great, indeed, was the increase of the state banks, and so extensive were the issues, that banking capital was not only increased much beyond the legitimate demand for it, but a considerable portion of the recently created banks failed, bringing disaster to a large portion of those persons who had confided in them. The secretary of the treasury, Mr. Crawford, estimated the paper circulation of the country, during the year 1816, at ninety-nine millions, and the specie circulation at eleven millions, making the whole, one hundred and ten millions of dollars. But few banks were at that time obliged to make known the exact amount of their circulation. Loans to the government were effected by some of the banks of the middle states during the war; and as those were made, for the most part, in bills, the issues must, through that means, have become greatly increased. The pressure became so great, in fact, that in September, 1814, those banks, as well as the banks of the south, were obliged to suspend the payment of specie for their bills.

A deep and general distrust necessarily grew out of the suspension of specie payments, by the several banks, and the rapid depreciation of their bills was the natural consequence. The measure of this depreciation was, however, different in the different states. Thus, the bills of the bank of Baltimore were at a discount of twenty per cent; those of the banks of the city of New York, of ten per cent; and in January of the following year, the discounts at Baltimore were twenty per cent, and at New York, fifteen per cent. In consequence of that state of things, the financial concerns, both of the government and of individuals, became much depressed; each state possessing a currency of its own, the revenue was paid in bills of unequal value, and loans could only with difficulty be procured by the general government. The news of peace, which reached the country in February, 1815, appears to have restored confidence in the state banks; and it was anticipated that specie payments would be resumed. The public, were, however, in that respect, disappointed. The depreciation of the bills of the state banks continued, and the debts due to the United States, as well as the amount for the payment of large importations consequent upon the peace, could only be paid in those depreciated bills. Although gold and silver were alone receivable in the payment of debts since the dissolution of the national bank, yet the government was obliged to take those, or to go without payment. It is alleged, indeed, that the state banks did, in fact, control the government, inasmuch as gold and silver could only be brought into circulation through their agency, while they kept themselves entirely beyond the reach of the government itself. In consequence of the disordered state of the currency, it was found difficult, by *the secretary of the treasury*, to make payments in the various parts *of the United States*; and efforts were accordingly made to unite the state

banks in resuming specie payments, but without success. The bills received in the different states in payment of the revenue, were of unequal value. It has been seen that the last national bank was established in 1816, and measures were soon adopted to cause the revenues to be collected in the legal currency of the Union. For this purpose, Congress instructed the secretary of the treasury to receive nothing in payment but the legal currency, or treasury notes, or notes of the national bank, or notes of banks that were paid in specie on demand. During the following year an arrangement was made between the bank of the United States and the state banks of New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, and Virginia, which induced the resumption of specie payments.

From 1811, to 1830, one hundred and sixty-five state banks, possessing an aggregate capital of about thirty millions of dollars, either failed or discontinued their business; those failures occurring in nearly every state and territory of the Union. The government had about one million, three hundred and ninety thousand, seven hundred and seven dollars, deposited within their vaults, the greater portion of which it lost, while the loss to individuals was that of many millions, the bulk of which fell upon widows and orphans, whose property had been entrusted within their vaults. These failures arose in some cases from the multiplication of banks in places where they were not required; from injudicious discounts and over issues; from ignorance of the principles of banking and the nature and operation of banking institutions; and in some cases from a desire of gain, at the expense of individuals and the public. The number of the state banks continued, however, to increase. On the first of January, 1834, they had advanced to the number of five hundred, with a proportionate increase of capital. It is well known that within a more recent period they have increased to a much larger number, and their operations have been attended with numerous failures.

In order to aid the circulation of coin throughout the country, the government has, through the power vested in it by the constitution to coin money, established a mint. The first mint was instituted under a law which passed Congress in 1792, and the place of its location is the city of Philadelphia. That was the only institution in the country until the year 1835, when three branches of this principal mint were created. These were to be situated in the town of Charlotte, state of North Carolina, and Dahlonega, in the state of Georgia; both in the centre of the gold region of the south, and were to be devoted exclusively to the coinage of gold. The third was established in the city of New Orleans, and was devoted to the coinage, both of gold and silver. These branches went into operation in 1838, and are respectively managed by superintendents who are under the control of the director of the parent mint, the coinage of all being uniform. The whole mint is in fact a bureau of the treasury department of the general government, is under the supervision of the secretary of the treasury, and its coinage consists of eagles, half eagles, and quarter eagles, of gold; dollars, half dollars, quarter dollars, dimes, and half dimes, of silver, and cents of copper. The discovery of valuable gold mines in the soil of the United States, adds another source of wealth to the already vast resources of the nation. Gold to a considerable amount has been already obtained in the states of Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Tennessee and Alabama; and it appears from the last census, that more than a thousand men are employed throughout these

states in working those mines. The total value of the deposits of American gold at the mint of the United States, down to the year 1843, it appears from the report of the director of the mint, is six million, three hundred and sixteen thousand, two hundred and fifty-nine dollars. It is also well known that the principal part of our metallic circulation is comprised of American and Spanish coin. The officers of the mint are a director, chief coiner, assayer, engraver, melter and refiner; a treasurer, and the necessary clerks and workmen. It is the duty of the director to superintend and manage the operations of the mint, and all the persons engaged in the establishment. The assayer assays the metals that require it, and delivers them to the coiner, and the chief coiner coins them, in such quantities and forms as the director may prescribe. The engraver prepares the dies for the coin, with the proper devices and inscriptions; the melter and refiner takes charge of all copper and silver, or gold bullion, reduces them into bars and ingots for the rolling mills, and delivers them to the coiner or treasurer, as the director orders. The treasurer receives and gives receipts for all metals properly brought to the mint to be coined, and delivers to the assayer a portion to be assayed. Every officer and clerk of the mint, before he enters upon the duties of his office, is required to take oath or affirmation before some judge of the United States, faithfully to perform his duties, while the assayer, chief coiner, melter, and refiner and treasurer, give bonds to the secretary of the treasury for the faithful performance of their own duties. All persons are permitted to carry gold and silver bullion to the mint, to be coined, and it is assayed and coined as soon as practicable after it is deposited. If it is of the standard of the United States, it is coined without compensation, yet the treasurer is not obliged to receive silver in less quantity than two hundred ounces, or gold in less quantity than twenty ounces, when less than the standard value.

We do not propose here to enter into a discussion of the various projects that have been urged on the one side and the other, for the re-establishment of the bank of the United States. It is well known, that, since the expiration of the last national bank, a bank charter was vetoed by President Jackson, although it passed both houses of Congress; and another bill, of a similar character, was presented to President Tyler, and met the same fate. An institution that was more recently projected, and understood to have been framed by the late secretary of state, Mr. Webster, was not passed into a bill. The question of a national bank has probably been the source of more excited party action, of late years, than any subject, excepting, perhaps, that of the tariff. Some of the opponents of the institution, looking at the topics that have occurred at various times, not only from a national bank, but also the banks of the states, have advocated the substitution of the precious metals exclusively, for a paper currency, as a circulating medium, holding that we should not depend upon banks at all for our currency. In regard to the general principles which should regulate the emission of bank paper, we would subjoin some of the remarks made by one of the most distinguished statesmen of the country, Mr. Webster, during the month of June of the present year, in Trenton, which, without reference to party, deserve consideration.

"There are dangers and evils, as well as benefits and advantages, in that mixed circulation of coin and paper which now exists among us. That that *mixed circulation will* continue, seems certain. That far the *greater part will consist of* paper, until there shall come another day of

disaster to the banks, seems certain, also. That this circulation, in its present state, while the banks which issue paper are solvent, and do not issue it in excess, is convenient, and as beneficial as any local circulation can be, may be also admitted. But neither of these things is more certain than that danger hangs round the system, calling for care and discretion, oversight and watchfulness from the government, or in the absence of the exercise of any powers of the government, from the banks themselves, and from the community. I have ever been and still am of opinion that this guardianship and superintendence of the currency, is one of the constitutional, appropriate and necessary exercises of the authority of the national government. But that point I do not now propose to argue, or to touch. But I wish to state what I consider the danger to be, and whence it arises, to the end that the country may not be led to forget the existence of that danger, although it be not, at the present moment, standing in an appalling attitude before us.

"Gold and silver are the universal standard of value, and medium of payments, among all civilized nations. All the coin in the world belongs to all the commercial nations in the world, each having naturally a share of it, proportioned to its commercial business and use. If bills of exchange were unknown, then coin would exchange hands from country to country, in order to pay debts and settle balances, as the course of trade should have created such balance, on the one side or the other. Coin is the universal solvent of commercial balances, the general paymaster, whose office it is to square accounts, arising from the interchange of commodities. If produce exported becomes debtor to produce imported, coin must pay the difference; and where exports throw a credit over import, coin returns to adjust the accounts. All this is as simple, in the order of things, as is the proceeding of a farmer, who goes to the market town, with the produce of his farm, and with money in his pocket, if he wishes to buy more than he has to sell, or bringing home more money, if his sale exceed his purchases.

"But in the intercourse of nations, there are things which affect the simplicity of this proceeding, and render it a little more complicated, without changing its nature. The use of bills of exchange is universal. Bills of exchange prevent, in a very great degree, in a settled state of trade, the actual transmission of coin from country to country. They run the round of the whole mercantile world, bringing nations to a settlement, each one with all the rest, one paying its debts to another, by drawing on its funds in the hands of a third, and leaving coin to be called for, only where balances of debt are considerable, or appear to be accumulating at some one point. London may be regarded as the centre of exchanges for Europe, and the city of New York, for this country; Paris, Hamburg and Amsterdam being auxiliaries to London; and Boston, Philadelphia, Baltimore, Mobile and New Orleans, auxiliaries to New York.

"The state of exchange, then, at any time, between New York and London, shows substantially the state of trade, in the aggregate, between this country and Europe, and the balances actually existing, or soon to arise, on the one side or the other. Speculations founded in calculations respecting future events, such as the probable amount of the staple articles, for the year, or the results of manufacturing industry, the probable rise or *fall of* prices, and other such things, affect, to a certain degree, the actual *rate* at which bills of exchange are bought and sold, and thus qualify that *which* would otherwise be the mere result of facts, with more or less of

the influence of opinion. Still, the general and the safe index of the state of trade is the state of the exchanges.

"To an accurate understanding of the subject, however, it is necessary to bear in mind that the nominal exchange between the United States and England does not correspond with the real commercial exchange; by reason of the difference which the laws of the two countries have established in regard to the value of gold, and of the incorrect estimate, usually made here, in the business of exchange, of the value of the pound sterling. In exchange the pound sterling is received at $4 44; its real value may be put at $4 80, and so the laws of Congress regard it. This difference amounts to 8 per cent. So that when a bill of exchange is bought in New York, payable in London, in sterling money, if the premium given for it do not exceed 8 per cent, it is really purchased at about par; and in this state of exchanges, there is no danger of the export of specie.

"The topic may be thought to be not altogether fit for discussion here. But I have made these remarks upon it for reasons which I have already stated, and for the purpose of preparing the way a little for opinions which I entertain on the subject of a mixed metallic and paper currency, and the influences of this currency on foreign trade; and which opinions I wish briefly to state. And I wish to do this at this time, because I think I foresee that in the progress of no great number of years, probably sooner than most men suppose, the currency question will again come to be a question of great interest.

"Gold and silver, as I have already said, constitute the standard of value, and medium of payment among nations. The same is true, in effect, in domestic trade, and among individuals. But here comes in the modern use of bank paper as the representative of gold and silver, which supplies the place of coin, and almost supercedes it in domestic transactions. Most commercial countries authorize the circulation of paper, and this circulation is greater or less, according to circumstances, and to the habits of the people. In the United States and England it is large, in France it is less.

"I am not now speaking of government securities, irredeemable treasury notes, or anything of that kind; I am speaking of bank notes, promising payment in specie on demand, and circulating as cash. In the United States such bank notes are issued by many hundred different banks. They pass from hand to hand, as money, and little gold and silver is seen in the daily business of life. This state of things is convenient, so far as local circulations are concerned, and while the use of paper is restrained within just limits. But then comes the question, what are the just limits, and who is to preserve them? What is the standard, by which we are to decide the question of excess, or no excess? and who is to support the standard?

"Is there, or is there not, or may there be, or cannot there ever be, excess, so long as the banks are able to redeem their paper? What do we mean by excess, or over issues, or injudicious superabundance of paper?

"To answer these questions, we must remember that the true operation of bank paper is of a representative character. It represents coin. But this representative, like other representatives, sometimes forgets its constituents, and sets itself up to be somebody, or something; when of itself, it is nobody, and nothing. The one dollar bill which you have in your pocket *is no better than blank* paper, except so far as you have confidence *that it will, whenever you wish*, bring a dollar into your hands.

"A bank note, professing to represent coin, and being a true representative, acts a respectable part in the drama of commercial affairs; but when it sets up for itself, or offers itself in an independent character, it only "presents the person of moonshine." The security of paper, first against the insolvency of banks, and secondly against the general evil of over-issues and inflated circulation, consists in maintaining a just and direct relation between the amount of paper and the gold and silver which it represents. I do not, of course, say a relation of equality, but a just relation, and a direct relation. In other words, I mean to say that when the course of trade withdraws specie from the country, then the amount of circulating paper should be proportionally diminished.

"Bank notes will not pay foreign debts. Strangers will not trust this representative of coin. They cannot judge of his credentials, and, therefore, demand the presence of the constituent itself. Here, I think, lies one of the great temptations to excessive issues of paper. Then trade is such that balances are rising against us abroad, and the exportation of specie commences. There are those who always desire an enlargement of the paper circulation, to supply the deficiency, and to keep up prices. But enlargement of paper issues, under such circumstances, is the first step towards a *crisis*, commercial distress and revulsion. The country is full of enterprise. No people have more. Almost every man is active, while, at the same time, and for the same reason, capital is less abundant than in older countries.

"These circumstances keep up a demand for loans and discounts, especially in times of activity; and although it is doubtless true that a well conducted system of paper circulation may, to some extent, act as expansion of capital, and in that way be useful in a new country, yet men are too apt to delude themselves with the idea that paper is currency.

"But I am now considering mainly, paper currency at home, in its consequences upon importations, and other branches of foreign trade, and a just limit to its, or these discounts.

"An opinion has prevailed, in England, and I suppose still prevails, that it is safe in banks to discount every good bill of exchange, or promissory note, which bill or note is business paper, as it is called; that is, if it has been given in a real transaction of buying and selling. This has been, heretofore, the rule with the bank of England.

"Now, if by this, no more were meant than it might be safe for the bank itself, and so far as its own interests are concerned, to discount all such paper, the proposition might be admitted. Business paper, generally speaking, may be regarded as safe paper. But that all good business paper may be discounted by banks, and the discount paid in bank notes, without danger of injury to the public from an excess in the paper circulation, is a proposition which I do not admit, and which I think of dangerous tendency. I am persuaded that enlightened bank directors, disposed to regard the public good, as well as the interests of their own stockholders, can never act on such a principle.

"It is a fundamental error; and in a country so full of enterprise, and so much disposed to activity as ours, its practical tendency is to stimulate business too highly, to inflate prices unnaturally, to cause overtrading, over production, and over action, in all departments of business. It swells the amount of paper beyond its just relation to specie, and exposes the country to sudden revulsions. While specie is departing, to pay debts abroad,

it is the effect of this shallow and short-sighted policy to increase the paper circulation at home. How can such a course of things terminate, but in disaster and distress?

"We are now just recovering from a deep and long continued depression. All branches of business give evidence of revival and of healthy action. The danger is that we shall not be content to make haste slowly; that a spirit of speculation may spring out of our state of prosperity, when it shall become flushed. The danger is that paper will be issued to excess, prices become extravagant, and the symptoms of crisis be upon us, before we are aware. All this may not happen; but the only security that it shall not happen lies in this, viz:—that bank issues be kept within just bounds, *with direct reference to the amount of gold and silver.*

"Let me illustrate my meaning by a supposed case. Suppose the amount of coin in the banks of New York to be five millions. Suppose them to have issued, in paper, three millions for one, that is to say, fifteen millions. I do not intend to say that this is a just proportion, but it may be assumed, for illustration.

"Now, suppose the holders of one of these fifteen millions demand specie for it, for exportation. Then fourteen millions of paper remain resting on a basis of four millions. If a second million of specie be called for, then thirteen millions of paper rest on three millions of specie, and so on. Now it is evident that if such a process as this begins, and threatens to go on rapidly, without contraction, general distress, and perhaps explosions of the banks themselves, would be the inevitable and immediate consequences.

"This catastrophe, and the tendency of things toward it, is to be guarded against, by just restraints upon the amount of discounts, by waiting the course of trade, and observing continually the index of exchange. It is not sufficient guard to look at the supposed responsibility of paper offered for discounts, or to inquire whether it arose in any case from real transactions of sale and purchases. If the exchanges indicate that exportation of specie may be apprehended, more caution is necessary; and when exportation ordinarily commences, it should be met by an immediate and corresponding diminution of the paper circulation. This will slacken that exportation, check it, and finally stop it. The process may be inconvenient for the moment. It may more or less depress prices, and dash men's hopes a little But it is infinitely better to meet the occurrence, by its proper remedy, in the beginning, than to attempt to hold up against the natural course of things, to maintain trade in an artificial and forced state, tending every day to a final, ruinous and overwhelming fall of prices, and to a general prostration of credit.

"That which every branch of industry in this country most needs, is reasonable and steady, not extravagant or fluctuating prices; sudden changes deprive men of employment, and distress families.

"Steady occupation, with reasonable gain, constant markets, with fair prices, with no apprehension of sudden change, and the security which a man feels that that is money which he has taken for money, freedom from alarm, and panic, and no fear of disorder or violence; these things compose the elements of general and enduring prosperity among the industrious and producing classes of the community.

"In the *present state of things*, in the absence of all oversight by government, *the continuance* of the public prosperity very much depends on

the banks themselves. Subject to no control but their own discretion, they ought to feel responsible for the exercise of that discretion.

"The great cities near to us, and other great cities, the sources of a great proportion of bank paper, are jointly called on to guard the country against such evils as it has already more than once experienced.

"There ought to be an understanding among the leading institutions, and a just disposition to discountenance every where, either extravagant lending or extravagant borrowing. I do not presume to admonish the banks; but I hope they will receive these suggestions as made in a friendly spirit. If discretion and candor, in this respect, be not exercised, our present state of health will itself bring on disease; our very prosperity will plunge us in disorder. We are well instructed by experience—let us not be lost to experience. Let not all the good, all the comforts, all the blessings, which now seem in prospect for all classes, be blighted, ruined and destroyed by running into danger which we may avoid. The rocks before us are all visible—all high out of water. They lift themselves up, covered with the fragments of the awful wrecks and ruin of other times. Let us avoid them. Let the master, and the pilots, and the helmsman, and all the crew, be wide awake, and give the breakers a good berth."

Two prominent parties have arisen in the country, the one advocating the charter of a bank, on the ground that such an institution is constitutional and expedient, and the other opposing it upon opposite grounds. If we trace the political history of the national banks of the country back to the early controversies which have arisen upon the subject of their establishment, we find that the discussions have not always been made strictly party questions. The bank of 1791, as has been seen, was established under the auspices of President Washington, and was at that time deemed by him constitutional. The refusal of Mr. Madison to sign the bank bill of 1811, appears to have been founded in honest doubts as to its expediency, and the bill of 1816 was passed into a law with his approval. The vetoes of some of his successors seem to have been based upon its alleged inexpediency and unconstitutionality. It would seem that a solemn decision of the Supreme Court has fully set at rest the constitutionality of a national bank;* but its expediency, of course, must depend upon various considerations connected with its structure and operations.

We have thus traced a condensed history of the banks of the United States, not with any partisan view, but for the purpose of giving the prominent facts connected with banking institutions in our own country. Many of these institutions have doubtless been established for mere purposes of speculation, and have been conducted in a fraudulent spirit; but the greater part, we doubt not, have met with the disasters which caused their explosion, either from over issues, injudicious discounts, or from an ignorance of the true principles of banking. It is admitted on all sides, that, in order to carry on the extensive business operations of the mercantile community, we require a solid, stable, and uniform currency. It is equally clear, that a system like banking, that has constituted a prominent engine of trade and commerce in all civilized communities, must possess fixed and ascertained principles; and to discover and apply those principles in the most equitable manner, should be the grand object of all who exercise any agency in the creation or the management of those institu-

* McCulloch vs. State of Maryland, 4 Wheaton, 316.

tions. It seems that the question of the future establishment of a national bank rests upon very clear ground. Is the charter of such an institution proper? In order to answer this question, it is necessary to understand thoroughly the practical operations of the bank upon the community. If it tends to the public welfare, if it promotes the public good, every judicious man must be convinced that it is proper to be established; but if, on the other hand, it is to be made the organ of political corruption, if it is to subserve selfish and party ends, no honest and intelligent mind would assent to its existence.

Art. IV.—MERCANTILE BIOGRAPHY.

HENRY LAURENS.

Henry Laurens was born in Charleston, South Carolina, in the year 1724. He was descended from ancestors who were French protestant refugees, and left France after the revocation of the edict of Nantz. They landed at New York, where they resided some time, and afterwards settled at the place of his birth. The superintendence of his education was first given to Mr. Howe, and subsequently, to Mr. Corbett; but of the nature of his studies, or the extent of his acquirements we are not told.. He was regularly bred to mercantile pursuits under the direction of Thomas Smith, of Charleston, afterwards of Mr. Crockatt, of London, and was remarkable through life, for his peculiar observance of method in business. When he returned from London he entered into trade with Mr. Austin, of Charleston. In whatever he was engaged, he was distinguished for his extraordinary punctuality. Allowing nothing ever to interfere with his own, he invariably discountenanced the violations of it by others. What a noble example for every young man steadily to hold in view! It was the constant possession of these lofty and dignified feelings, and a rigid attention to his duties, which ensured him success through life, and served as a constant passport, in his progress, to that eminent distinction, which he afterwards so justly enjoyed.

Such was his reputation as a man of business, that to have served an apprenticeship in the counting house of Mr. Laurens, was a high recommendation. Industrious almost to an extreme himself, he demanded a corresponding attention and labor on the part of those in his employ. It is said, that he required but little sleep, and a considerable portion of the affairs of the day received his attention during a great part of the night. No man surpassed, perhaps few equalled him, in the execution of business. Rising early, and devoting the morning to the counting-house, he not unfrequently finished his concerns before others had left their beds. His letters, whether on friendship or business, were clear and forcible, and in a style admirably adapted to this species of writing. Two volumes of his official public correspondence, while president of the old Congress, remain in its archives.

Few men, perhaps, possessed a deeper knowledge of human nature; and the quickness with which he formed correct opinions of others from their appearance, was very remarkable. In proof of this, we are told that he was engaged in trade about twenty-three years, and that at the conclusion of the affairs of the partnership, which comprised transactions to

an immense amount, he proposed to take all outstanding debts as cash, at a discount of five per cent on their gross amount.

His colloquial powers were very great, and afforded delight and instruction to every company. Reproving with gentleness, his advice was at all times valued for its soundness and sincerity. Such was his integrity, and such were his views of justice, that he would on no occasion draw bills of exchange till he first obtained an acknowledgment in writing from those on whom he designed to draw, that they were indebted to him. He cheerfully, but moderately, partook of proper diversions, but retained, during his whole life, an invincible aversion to playing any game for pecuniary consideration.

We are told that, in several instances, he yielded to the improper fashion of deciding controversies by single combat. In each instance, he received the fire of his adversary without returning it. Of his generosity there are many instances. He was engaged, on one occasion, in a law suit with the judge of the court of vice-admiralty, and resisted the claims of the royal government, which, by some regulations, were opposed to American rights. Failing in his suit, Mr. Laurens tendered to the judge, Sir Egerton Leigh, his legal fees, which were considerable. The judge declining their acceptance, Mr. Laurens presented the amount of them to the South Carolina society for charitable purposes. On another occasion, he received money in some official character, which had not been demanded. Disclaiming the idea of his having any right to keep it, he transferred it to the same society till it should be applied for by the owner.

Strict and exemplary in his religious duties, he was found regularly at church. With the holy scriptures he was well acquainted, and took great delight in applying portions of them to the common occurrences of life. They were not only regularly read by himself to his family, but his children were early instructed to read them also at stated periods. His family bible contained, in his own hand-writing, several observations on passing providences. He has been often heard to say, that many of the best passages of distinguished authors were borrowed either in the matter or the style from sacred writ; and he quoted the following among other instances, "God tempers the wind to the back of the shorn lamb" of Sterne, as an imitation of "He stayeth his rough wind in the day of the east wind" of the prophet Isaiah. He was charmed with the writings of Solomon, for the knowledge of human nature which they imparted, and conceived that the observance of their maxims would greatly contribute to the wisdom and happiness of society.

Requiring of his servants the exact execution of their several duties, compelling the observance of decency and order, their wants and comforts were never neglected, and to their moral and religious instruction he was invariably attentive.

He once obtained of a favorite slave his consent, though much against his will to receive the small-pox by inoculation, but by which he lost his life. With a view of administering to the faithful, though unfortunate domestic, in his last dying moments, all the consolation that this distressing case seemed to admit, Mr. Laurens gave to him positive assurances, with which he afterwards most strictly complied, that his children should be emancipated.

Having lost an amiable and beloved wife, and possessed of a large estate, he entirely relinquished business, and in the year 1771, visited Eu-

rope; principally for the purpose of superintending the education of his sons, by whose attainments his highest expectations were fully realized.

He was one of the thirty-nine native Americans who endeavored, by their petition, to prevent the British parliament from passing the Boston port bill.

Every exertion on the part of the colonies to prevent a war proving entirely fruitless, he hastened home, with a determination to take part with his countrymen against Great Britain. Persuasions and entreaties were used to divert him from the resolution he had formed, dazzling prospects were held out to his view, and even large offers were made, by which he would be indemnified for any losses he might sustain, by his remaining in England. But this ornament of his country, burning with patriotism and the love of liberty, ever dignified, firm, and incorruptible, rejected these despicable propositions, with a magnanimity of spirit worthy of his exalted character.

How beautiful, yet forcible, is his reply on his embarkation from Falmouth for Charleston, to a mercantile friend, Mr. Oswald, who urged him to continue in Great Britain :—"I shall never forget your friendly attention to my interest; but I dare not return. Your ministers are deaf to information, and seem bent on provoking unnecessary contest. I think I have acted the part of a faithful subject. I now go, resolved still to labor for peace, at the same time determined in the last event to stand or fall with my country." On his departure from England, he expressed his conviction, that America would not submit to the claims of the British parliament; and when he arrived at Charleston in December, 1774, he mentioned to his friends his opinion, that Britain would not only reject their demands, but that war would inevitably take place. From his acknowledged weight of character, it may readily be supposed, that such information would receive the most implicit confidence, and, accordingly, vigorous and extensive preparations for defence were made early in 1775 by the Carolinians. The circumstance of his leaving England at this important crisis, expressly to defend the cause of independence, served to confirm, in the highest degree, that unbounded confidence in his fidelity and patriotism, which his friends, through the whole course of his career, had such ample cause to entertain.

On his arrival, no attentions were withheld which it was possible to bestow. Offices were conferred and honors heaped upon him. He became president of the council of safety, with a full persuasion that his life was endangered by this situation. Soon after the establishment of a regular constitution in South Carolina, in 1776, he was elected a member of Congress, and shortly after he had taken his seat, was appointed president of that honorable body, over which he presided with his usual integrity, industry, and decision. About this period, the British commissioners arrived, under the delusive hope of being able to induce the Americans to abrogate their alliance with France, and to become once more free British subjects. Governor Johnson, one of the commissioners, presented private letters of introduction to Mr. Laurens. In December, 1778, he relinquished his situation as president of Congress, for what reason we are not told, and received its thanks "for his conduct in the chair, and in the execution of public business." His acknowledgments were returned for the honor conferred *upon him*, which, he observed, "would be of service *to his children.*" *In the following* year, he received the appointment of

minister plenipotentiary from the United States to Holland; and being captured on his voyage, was taken to England, and there imprisoned in the Tower of London on suspicion of treason, and was officially mentioned by Sir Joseph York, as "styling himself president of the pretended congress." The commitment was accompanied with orders, "to confine him a close prisoner—to be locked up every night—to be in the custody of two warders—not to suffer him to be out of their sight one moment, day or night—to allow him no liberty of speaking to any person, nor to permit any person to speak to him—to deprive him of the use of pen and ink—to suffer no letter to be brought to him, nor any to go from him."

Afflicted with the gout and other diseases—his head whitened with the snows of fifty-six winters,—in a situation full of misery,—his cup of sorrow seemed to be full to overflowing. This venerable and illustrious prisoner was confined to two small rooms, with a warder for his constant companion, and a fixed bayonet, paraded under his window, enjoying neither friend to converse with, nor means of correspondence. Deprived of pen and ink, he at length fortunately procured pencils. After a month's confinement, permission was granted to him to exercise on limited ground, but a warder, armed with a sword, followed him closely. He had availed himself of this indulgence for about three weeks, when Lord George Gordon, who was also imprisoned in the Tower, unluckily met and asked Mr. Laurens to walk with him. Mr. Laurens declined the offer, and hastened to his apartment. Governor Gore, provoked at this transgression of his positive orders, locked him up for thirty-seven days, though the attending warder proved Mr. Laurens perfectly innocent of the violation of any established rule. About this time, one of his friends and mercantile correspondents, interested in his welfare, solicted the secretaries of state to grant Mr. Laurens an enlargement on parole, and offered his fortune as security for his good conduct. The following message to Mr. Laurens was the result:—"Their lordships say, if you will point out any thing for the benefit of Great Britain in the present dispute with the colonies, you will be enlarged." This proposition inspired him with the noblest feelings, and raising his proud soul above the acceptance of any allurement founded in ignoble views, induced the keenest replication. The same friend, soon after, during a private interview with Mr. Laurens, observed, "I converse with you this morning, not particularly as your friend, but as the friend of Great Britain. I have certain propositions to make for obtaining your liberty, which I advise you should take time to consider." Requesting to know what they were, Mr. Laurens added, "An honest man requires no time to decide upon his answer in cases where his honor is concerned. If the secretaries of state will enlarge me upon parole, I will solemnly engage to do nothing, directly or indirectly, to the hurt of this kingdom. I will return to America, or remain in any part of England which may be assigned, and surrender myself when demanded." To which his friend replied, "No sir, you must stay in London among your friends. The ministry will often have occasion to send for and consult you. You can write two or three lines to the ministers, and barely say you are sorry for what is past. A pardon will be granted. Every man has been wrong at some time or other of his life, and should not be ashamed to acknowledge it." Mr. Laurens immediately exclaimed, "I will never subscribe to my own infamy and to the dishonor of my children."

Such newspapers from America as were employed in the publication of British successes, especially in South Carolina, and subsequently to the surrender of its capital, were sent to him for his perusal with an insulting regularity. He was there informed, that his countrymen, refusing to fight in the cause in which they had embarked, were flocking to the enemy for protection and reward, and that the estates of Laurens and other stubborn rebels were under actual sequestration by the British conquerors. But to every such communication Mr. Laurens calmly and characteristically replied, "none of these things move me."

In the year 1781, his eldest son, lieutenant colonel John Laurens, arrived in France, as minister of Congress. Mr. Laurens was desired to write to his son, that if he would withdraw himself from that court, it might possibly obtain his father's release. The reply was—"My son is of age, and has a will of his own. If I should write to him as you request, it would have no effect. He would only conclude that confinement and persuasion had intimidated and overcome me. I know him well. He loves me dearly, and would lay down his life to save mine; but I am sure nothing would tempt him to sacrifice his honor, and I applaud him."

In want of money for immediate purposes, and desirous of drawing a bill of exchange on a merchant in London, and his debtor, he transmitted a pencilled request to the secretaries of state for the use of writing materials. Their lordships received it, but returned no answer, though no provision had been made for his support. Mortified and disappointed, at not being able to maintain himself from his own funds, he was suffered to languish in aggravated confinement, and under a complication of diseases, without the slightest prospect of release or melioration.

When he had been confined a year, a demand was made upon him to pay ninety-seven pounds ten shillings, sterling, to two warders for services in waiting on him. He returned the following answer, "I will not pay the warders whom I never employed, and whose attendance I shall be glad to dispense with." Three weeks after this, Mr. Laurens received permission from the secretaries of state to have the use of pen and ink for the purpose of drawing a bill of exchange, but they were removed immediately after its execution.

Towards the close of the year 1781, his sufferings, which had by that time become well known, excited the utmost sympathy for himself, but kindled the warmest indignation against the authors of his cruel confinement. Every attempt to draw concessions from this inflexible patriot having proved more than useless, his enlargement was resolved upon, but difficulties arose as to the mode of effecting it. Pursuing the same high-minded course which he had at first adopted, and influenced by the noblest feelings of the heart, he obstinately refused his consent to any act which might imply a confession that he was a British subject, for as such he had been committed on a charge of high treason. It was finally proposed to take bail for his appearance at the court of king's bench, and when the words of the recognizance, "our sovereign lord the king," were read to Mr. Laurens, he distinctly replied in open court, "not my sovereign!" With this declaration, he, with Messrs. Oswald and Anderson, as his securities, were bound for his apperance at the next court of king's bench for Easter term, and for not departing without leave of the court, upon *which he was immediately* discharged. When the time appointed *for his trial approached, he* was not only exonerated from obligation to

attend, but solicited by Lord Shelburne to depart for the continent to assist in a scheme for a pacification with America. The idea of being released gratuitously by the British government, sensibly moved him, for he had invariably considered himself as a prisoner of war. Possessed of a lofty sense of personal independence, and unwilling to be brought under the slightest obligation, he thus expressed himself, "I durst not accept myself as a gift; and as congress once offered general Burgoyne for me, I have no doubt of their being now willing to offer earl Cornwallis for the same purpose."

Close confinement in the tower for more than fourteen months had shattered his constitution, and he was ever afterwards a stranger to good health. As soon as his discharge was promulgated, he received from Congress a commission, appointing him one of their ministers for negotiating a peace with Great Britain. Arrived at Paris, in conjunction with Dr. Franklin, John Adams, and John Jay, he signed the preliminarirs of peace on the 30th of November, 1782, by which the independence of the United States was unequivocally acknowledged. Soon after this, Mr. Laurens returned to Carolina. Entirely satisfied with the whole course of his conduct while abroad, it will readily be imagined that his countrymen refused him no distinctions within their power to bestow; but every solicitation to suffer himself to be elected governor, member of Congress, or of the Legislature of the state, he positively withstood. When the project of a general convention for revising the federal bond of union, was under consideration, he was chosen, without his knowledge, one of its members, but he refused to serve. Retired from the world and its concerns, he found delight in agricultural experiments, in advancing the welfare of his children and dependants, and in attentions to the interest of his friends and fellow-citizens.

He expired on the 8th of December, 1792, in the sixty-ninth year of his age. His will concluded with this singular request, which was strictly complied with:—"I solemnly enjoin it upon my son as an indispensable duty, that as soon as he conveniently can after my decease, he cause my body to be wrapped in twelve yards of tow cloth, and burnt until it be entirely consumed; and then, collecting my bones, deposit them wherever he may see proper."

Mr. Laurens had four children, two sons and two daughters. One of them married the late celebrated Dr. Ramsay; the other, Mr. Charles Pinckney. One of the sons, Colonel John Laurens, resided for many years in Charleston, South Carolina.

Art. V.—THE FAIR OF THE AMERICAN INSTITUTE.

The exhibition of this popular national institution for the year 1844, was opened on the seventh of October, in Niblo's Garden, by an able and eloquent address from the Hon. Luther Bradish, the late Lieutenant Governor of the state of New York. In the extensive and brilliant display of the most valuable specimens of domestic skill and industry, it presented a gratifying scene to all those who feel an interest in the advance of mechanical ingenuity and manufacturing enterprise throughout the nation. There were presented, in the various articles connected with manufacture and the mechanic arts, the evidences of a marked and decided genius for those particular subjects of American enterprise; and the extensive appar-

ments of the saloon, and the adjoining garden, were daily filled, during the continuance of the exhibition, with throngs of visiters, who were, doubtless, gratified with the exhibition.

The exhibition itself consisted of the most approved specimens of American ingenuity and labor, connected with agriculture, commerce, manufactures, and the arts, to advance which, the institution itself was originally organized. The most highly finished models of manufacturing machinery, fire engines, and other utensils, too numerous to be described, were among the most elegant specimens of American genius. The various sorts of cloth produced in our own manufacturing establishments, gave evidence of decided improvement in that particular department of domestic industry. Numerous articles, both useful and ornamental, ranged along the borders, and upon the shelves of the building in which the institute held its exhibition, were calculated to arouse the honest pride of our countrymen in the progress which has been made, throughout the nation, in the industrial arts. The agricultural and silk conventions, designed to improve the condition of these two important branches of culture, were also held at the same time, and were calculated to add to the interest of the occasion.

The American Institute has now held its seventeenth anniversary, and during that time it has accomplished much for the benefit of the industry of the country. Its objects, it is well known, are national, so far as they are designed to advance the various interests connected with the industrial arts throughout the nation. By collecting individuals engaged in the same pursuits at one place, annually; by engaging them in mutual council and deliberation, respecting the various interests with which they are identified; and by exhibiting the products of their respective pursuits, they can at once compare the relative advances which have been made in the several branches of their various occupations, and are induced to cultivate sentiments of a broad and patriotic character. Besides, the distribution of medals to the best specimens of American skill, is an equitable and judicious arrangement for the advancement of American industrial enterprise. Many a deserving and ingenious mechanic, who would otherwise, perhaps, remain in obscurity, were no public notice taken of the products of his skill and industry, is here honored with a medal, which is a sort of general letter of recommendation to the public; and he thus assumes that place before the community, to which his substantial merits give him the just title. The delivery of addresses, moreover, upon interesting topics connected with the industrial enterprise of the United States, or upon subjects of a more general character, yet referring to the same interest, is calculated to shed new light upon the various topics of which they treat.

It can hardly have escaped the attention of the observing mind, that, within a recent period, a remarkable degree of public interest has been directed to the industrial arts, as a branch of enterprise, which should be especially fostered. This is not only true of our own country, where industry has ever been respected, but in Paris, we have noticed that within the last year, a splendid exhibition has been opened, which excited great interest in the capital of France. With us, annual fairs, of a more local character, are held in almost every state in the Union, which have no immediate connection with the American Institute, but designed to advance *the same general objects, the* improvement of the agriculture, the manufactures, *the commerce,* and the mechanic arts of the country. No one

will deny that the design of those institutions is salutary, because they tend to shed new light upon the several subjects which they are designed to advance, encourage domestic enterprise, and give to substantial merit its due reward, besides improving the great interests for which they were established. They produce, moreover, another benefit, in so far as they induce assemblages of respectable and enterprising men, for purposes of joint council, mutual and patriotic deliberation.

It is obvious that with the advancing progress of this nation, we have improved in all those branches of enterprise which essentially contribute to the public prosperity. Upon the first colonization of the soil, we were deficient in many of those improvements which mark the present day. The people of the country were employed in clearing away the forests, in order to lay the foundations of the government, and in defending the framework of the edifice after it was erected. But the arts of war have yielded to the mild but more salutary energies of peace. The agricultural interest is pursued with more science, and with greater success. The finer departments of the arts have yielded innumerable and beautful specimens of industrial skill. New and improved forms of machinery have been introduced or invented, increasing the amount of articles produced, and diminishing the prices of products. New branches of enterprize have been adopted, and the various interests of American enterprise have been pursued with more intelligence and success.

It can scarcely be denied that this improvement has been, in great measure, advanced through the agency of the American Institute, and other institutions of similar character. They constitute the rallying places of thought, connected with the public industry, and the points of departure to further improvement. Their influence is felt in the greater unity of industrial action, in the elevation of patriotic hopes, and in the substantial improvement of the condition of the people. We trust that they may go on and work out even greater benefits to the nation; that they may advance the public morals, elevate the national standard, and contribute to the real and solid glory of the Union.

Art. VI.—THE QUESTION FOR ACCOUNTANTS.

To the Editor of the Merchants' Magazine:—

Having seen the solution given by Mr. J. W. Wright, in the October number of your valuable journal, to his question for accountants, and believing that it is susceptible of proof that the mode of settlement he has adopted, is liable to produce deceptive results, I take the liberty of requesting the favor of your columns, for the purpose of exhibiting that proof.

In respectfully expressing my humble dissent from the views of Mr. Wright, it is perhaps due to myself to say, that I cannot be looked upon as a rival, never having, or expecting to write, a treatise on Book-keeping—merely professing to know something of the principles of the art, and of the theory and practice of adjusting intricate accounts.

With regard to the various forms of making entries and closing books, it is more a matter of taste, (if I may use the expression in such connexion,) than importance. Books may be correctly kept in various ways, and the same transactions may be properly stated under different forms. *Not so* with the result to be obtained from keeping a set of books, or from

stating a particular transaction. There *can* be but one true result; there *may* be many erroneous ones. The only proper test of the truth of a statement, is to prove the result by a counter calculation.

I have found the following rules to be useful in reducing the principles of book-keeping to practice in actual business. Study accuracy; combine brevity with perspicuity; harmonise them as much as possible; but never sacrifice one to the other. State the transactions as directly as their nature will admit of, with as little circumlocution as possible.* Nominal accounts must be used in book-keeping, and there is no danger of their misleading any one; and nominal amounts may be allowed while a transaction is in suspense; but in *closing* a set of books, they should be entirely discarded, and those sums only used, which the property really represents.

In the solution given by Mr. Wright, he states that he has decreased his capital $15 22. In a statement I had made of the question, the capital was reduced $295 22. The difference in the two results, arises from the fact of his closing his books with the cloth on hand, estimated at its first cost; whereas, in my statement, it is put down at its actual value.

Although it may answer sometimes in closing a set of books, where there has been no great variation in prices, to take an account of the merchandise on hand, *at cost*, yet, whenever there has been any palpable reduction in value, it does not show the true state of the case, to set down property at a valuation it no longer represents; and such a mode of settlement is, therefore, deceptive.

Supposing that as soon as the merchant to whom those books belonged, (as stated in the question,) had been called upon by Mr. Goodman, for the payment of the balance due him, he would be led to infer from his books, as kept by Mr. Wright, that, as the capital was decreased only $15 22, he would only want that sum, to be able to settle in full for the amount he had borrowed to trade with.

But let us test the accuracy of such a result by the following plan:—

He owes Mr. Goodman.....		$3,000 00
" " Mr. Caleb W——		104 00
		$3,104 00
To pay this, he has in cash,.....	$1,688 78	
And, in 14 pieces blue cloth, worth per last sale only $80 each,.....	1,120 00	2,808 78
Deficiency of capital,.....		$295 22

This, I think, proves the deceptiveness of the mode adopted by Mr. Wright. For, although a merchant, during his trading, could not be constantly changing the valuation of his stock, to conform to the fluctuations in the prices of property, yet, I contend, that, if he wants to close his books, and ascertain the actual condition of his affairs, he will be liable to be deceived, if he estimates his property at a sum it no longer represents.

* I apprehend that Mr. Wright's plan of making use of a stock account, where a merchant borrows all his capital, would, in actual business, be deemed a work of supererogation. The balance *of profit and loss* account, in such a merchant's books, would, if on the debit *side, exhibit the deficiency of assets*, without the necessity of a stock account.

To illustrate my position, I will mention one or two cases in point, which have actually occurred, and have come under my own observation.

A gentleman engaged in business, hearing his neighbors speak of the advantages of "*taking stock*," concluded he would do the same. He accordingly set about it; put down the various articles he had on hand, *at cost*, and on completing his work, and summing up, was much gratified to find himself richer than he had before supposed. He was induced to indulge himself and family in many things, which previously he thought he could not afford. The next year he found himself embarrassed, and then discovered that he had *deceived* himself in valuing his stock *at cost*; whereas, from the unsaleableness of some articles, and the inevitable deterioration that all goods undergo more or less, by being kept, the stock was not, in the aggregate, worth by a considerable sum what it cost.

Another case is this: two individuals who had been doing business together, agreed to dissolve copartnership. They came to me to make a settlement between them. The party who was to continue the business, had agreed to take the property of the firm, *at cost*. I was much surprised at this; but as they did not come to me for advice, (only to carry out and fulfil what they had previously agreed upon,) I did nothing more than make an incidental remark about it, and the thing passed off. Several months afterwards, the partner who had continued the business, came to me and expressed his astonishment that he should so have *deceived* himself, as to take the stock of his late firm, *at cost*, when any other person could have bought it for less. He left me with a determination to write his former partner, and propose a new settlement. But with what success I never heard, as one went away, and the other died. Yet another instance is the case of an administrator, who, on his first examination of the books of the deceased intestate, stated that his estate was worth $20,000, after all debts were paid. He afterwards, however, found that he too had *deceived* himself, and discovered that the estate was barely more than solvent, he having, in the first instance, valued the property *at cost*, when it by no means represented that value.

Now, the mistake in all these three cases, arose from the same cause, viz., assuming a *nominal* value as the true value of the property on hand, when it was not. And this is precisely what is done in the solution of Mr. Wright, when he assumes the value of the 14 pieces blue cloth at cost ($1,400,) instead of their actual worth at the closing of the books, ($1,120,) making a difference of $280, which is just the difference between the result obtained by me,.....$295 22

And that procured by Mr. Wright,..... 15 22

Error in Mr. Wright's account,.....$280 00

Fortunately for accountants, the principles of book-keeping, are fewer and more certain, and the modes of applying those principles more in subjection to the laws of common sense, than would appear to be the case with the principles and practice of the English law, from the differences of opinion entertained by the learned judges respecting the counts in the late "monster indictment." I question very much whether there can be a difference of opinion as to the deceptiveness of the result contained in *Mr. Wright's* solution.

I have confined my *critique* mainly to the result given by Mr. Wright, *in* what he calls the "*exact*" solution of his question. His plan may be a

good one, although I doubt the practicability of anticipating every variety of cases that may occur in business, or of stating examples, so that a great many required adjustments shall not be provided for. It is to be regretted that Mr. Wright shou'd have thought it necessary for the advancement of his own work, not only to disparage those of others, but to cast reflections upon the competency of a useful and industrious class of men.

I learned book keeping, not from any printed treatise, but from an unpublished manuscript essay of a practical merchant and accountant. Still I have examined several of the treatises published both in this country and Europe, (one of which was written by my maternal grandfather,*) and have seen in all of them more or less to approve.

With great regard, I am, Mr. Editor,
Your much obliged servant,
WILLIAM B. HERIOT.

Charleston, S. C., October 10, 1844.

QUESTION FOR ACCOUNTANTS.

Two individuals bought a vessel together for the sum of $800, which was much less than her real value. Of the purchase money, A paid $500, and B $300. Afterwards a third person, C, having a profitable trade to employ her in, proposed to buy her; but A and B refused to sell. It was finally agreed among them that C should have a third of the vessel, and that all three owners should have an equal share in her. It was stipulated, however, that C should pay for his third, a sum equal to what A and B had paid for the whole, viz: $800. C accordingly paid this sum to A. How is this sum of $800, received from C, to be divided between A and B? Or how much has A to retain, and how much to pay to D?

ART. VII.—ART AND SCIENCE APPLIED TO COMMERCE.

SHIP BUILDING—PINE WOOD.

IT is well known that in some parts of Virginia and in North Carolina, says the Boston Mercantile Journal, edited by Mr. Sleeper, an experienced ship master, there are immense forests of pine, commonly known in commerce as *Georgia pitch pine*, where the trees are of large size, and a vast number of them are found on an acre of land. The soil is generally poor, and unsuitable for cultivation—offering but little inducement to settlers—and hence these trees are used only for the purpose of fuel, or for lumber, or for procuring tar and turpentine, great quantities of which are exported from North Carolina.

It is not so generally known that for many purposes, pitch pine lumber is by far the best which can be used, it being stronger and more durable than other species of wood found in Europe or America. The trees may also be found of any reasonable size; and it will thus be seen that for the keels of vessels, for beams, for carlins, &c., as well as for planks for the sides and bottoms of ships of every description, the pitch pine is decidedly the most valuable wood which can be procured.

Our attention was lately directed to an article in a work published some

* *The late Benjamin Booth, formerly of New York, afterwards of London, whose system of Book-keeping is referred to in McCulloch's Commercial Dictionary.*

years ago, in which is recorded the results of numerous experiments made in London by Col. Beaufoy, to test the strength of various kinds of wood. From these trials it appeared that pitch pine was the strongest wood, which was tested; next to that was the English oak, with straight and even fibres; then the English oak, irregular and cross-grained; fourthly, the Riga fir; and fifthly, the Dantzic oak. By calling the strength of the pitch pine 1,000, that of the English oaks would be 980 and 867, Riga fir 782, and Dantzic oak 663.•

Again, Barlow, on the strength of timber, describes the results of some experiments, where the pieces used were two inches square, and extended five feet from the fulcrum, as follows:—

Riga fir,.....pounds	169	Ash,.....pounds	217
Yellow pine,.....	189	Teak,.....	274
Pitch pine,.....	256	Dantzic oak,.....	167
White pine,.....	109	English oak,.....	234½

It appears from this result, that the teak wood, a resinous tree which grows in the East Indies, is the strongest wood used in ship-building; that next in value is the pitch pine, which is produced in such great abundance on our shores; the English oak stands the third on the list, and ash the fourth. We have seen no results of experiments to ascertain the strength of the various kinds of American oaks. The oak timber from the banks of the Rappahannock, is generally considered but very little inferior to the best English oak.

Our object, however, is chiefly to direct the attention of ship builders to the *strongest wood* which can be procured in this country, and its excellence for planks, beams, &c. We understand that the vessels built in the vicinity of Boston, lately, have been entirely planked with *pitch pine*, and we hope that this kind of timber will be used more freely in the construction of our national vessels, than has hitherto been the case.

IMPROVEMENT IN THE MANUFACTURE OF IRON.

It is stated in an English paper, that the attention of the ironmaster has been attracted to a process of considerable importance lately introduced into their manufactures. The application of electricity, to supersede several of the expensive processes, has been tried in the Welsh and Derbyshire furnaces with satisfactory results. It appears that the costly fuel and labor required for the purification of the ore from sulphur, phosphorus, and such subtle elements, create its high market value; and these being all electro-negative, have induced the new process, where, by the impure stream of metal, after flowing from the blast, is, in its moment of consolidation, subjected to a powerful voltaic battery, which so disengages the impure opponents, that in the process of puddling they are readily extracted. The London blacksmiths, it is stated, have tested this iron after a single re-heating, and pronounced it equal to the best metal in the market. By the same process, an experiment was tried by Dr. Ure, by whom a soft rod of iron was held in contact with a moderate red heat; and that gentleman is understood to have stated that in a few hours the metal was converted into steel. Should these facts prove what they seem, they are calculated to affect most seriously this important branch of our trade.

MONTHLY COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE.

In a former number, we remarked that an advance had taken place in the value of money, from artificial causes, which must necessarily be temporary in their operation; and that, therefore, a decline in rate might speedily be looked for. This has taken place, and money is very abundant at 5 per cent, for mercantile paper. The last returns of the banks show a considerable increase in their loans, which is necessary to maintain dividends, in the low rate of money. The nature of the loans does not, however, appear to be of the best character. A change in the manner of doing business has, in some degree, been produced by the situation of the markets. The imports during the past year have shown a great increase over the previous year, and are much larger than the wants of business require. The markets have, in consequence, presented a glut, with a downward tendency in prices that has induced city dealers to extend their credits to country dealers to a considerable extent, and to depend on bank discounts to meet their own engagements. The import, as indicated in the business of New York, has been as follows:—

IMPORTS INTO THE PORT OF NEW YORK, FOR THE YEAR ENDING 20TH SEPTEMBER.

	1843.			1844.		
	Free.	Dutiable.	Total.	Free.	Dutiable.	Total.
4th qr.,.	$2,706,821	$3,574,731	$6,281,552	$2,050,484	$7,971,622	$10,032,106
1st qr.,.	2,799,149	5,906,616	8,705,765	2,070,877	16,959,728	19,030,605
2d qr.,.	9,145,115	6,979,795	16,124,910	4,585,383	15,063,974	19,649,357
3d qr.,.	2,442,987	13,112,758	15,555,745	2,763,558	23,926,660	26,690,218
Total,..	$17,094,072	$29,573,900	$46,667,972	$11,470,302	$63,921,984	$75,092,286
Incr.,....	.....	.....	.....	.....	34,348,084	28,424,314
Decr.,....	.....	.....	.....	$5,623,770	.....	.....

The decrease in free goods is mostly in specie. The total increase in consumable goods is over 116 per cent, and the duties collected have been as follows:—

CUSTOMS DUTIES, PORT OF NEW YORK, 1843 AND 1844.

Years.	4th Qr.	1st Qr.	2d Qr.	3d Qr.	Total.
1843,.	$1,168,680	$1,876,874	$2,578,855	$4,310,814	$9,934,923
1844,.	2,534,163	5,537,023	5,478,588	7,829,946	21,379,720
Incr.,.	$1,365,483	$3,660,149	$2,889,733	$3,519,132	$11,444,797

The increase in duties bears the same proportion as the increase in dutiable goods. The exports of the port of New York, for the same period, have been as follows:—

EXPORTS OF THE PORT OF NEW YORK, FOR 1843 AND 1844.

	1843.			1844.		
	Dom. goods.	For. goods.	Total.	Dom. goods.	For. goods.	Total.
4th qr.,.	$4,030,468	$1,105,059	$5,135,527	$4,916,771	$1,298,887	$6,215,658
1st qr.,.	3,875,286	715,507	4,570,793	6,385,089	829,876	7,214,925
2d qr.,.	4,755,386	1,470,378	6,225,764	8,291,635	1,612,474	9,904,109
3d qr.,.	4,268,295	2,119,816	6,386,111	8,000,000	3,000,000	11,000,000
	$19,949,435	$5,410,760	$22,360,195	$27,593,495	$6,741,197	$34,334,692

The exports from the port of New York form no index, whatever, to the export trade of the country; because the proportion of the whole export sent from this port is so small, and fluctuates to so great an extent. The imports, on the other hand, form very generally two-thirds of the whole amount brought into the country. The drawback on imported goods has been as follows:—

DRAWBACK ON FOREIGN GOODS EXPORTED FROM NEW YORK.

Years.	*4th Qr.*	1st Qr.	2d Qr.	3d Qr.	Total.
1843,.....	*$138,006*	$112,137	$183,021	$165,877	$599,041
1844,..... ...	*132,134*	113,892	172,635	230,000	648,661

The imports into the port of New York, for several years, have been as follows:—

QUARTERLY IMPORTS INTO THE PORT OF NEW YORK.

Years.	1st Qr.	2d Qr.	3d Qr.	4th Qr.	Total.
1832,.....	$18,637,978	$11,347,018	$10,976,281	$5,807,691	$46,768,968
1833,.....	12,333,948	16,297,190	21,079,873	11,233,033	60,944,044
1834,.....	20,635,918	20,578,745	20,276,504	15,384,198	76,875,376
1835,.....	16,404,141	22,453,541	33,491,833	16,954,593	89,304,108
1836,.....	26,756,312	37,937,582	36,052,430	18,139,870	118,886,194
1837,.....	36,591,650	17,807,206	12,004,980	7,970,722	68,374,558
1838,.....	16,583,561	21,915,547	21,689,530	17,026,091	77,214,729
1839,.....	28,110,818	22,748,183	31,598,322	14,621,364	97,078,687
1840,.....	16,940,786	10,647,872	17,854,920	11,402,346	56,854,924
1841,.....	21,933,890	18,736,421	23,285,626	11,312,078	75,268,015
1842,.....	20,687,030	18,724,686	9,722,287	6,281,552	52,415,555
1843,.....	8,705,765	16,124,910	15,455,745	10,022,106	50,308,526
1844,.....	19,030,605	19,649,357	26,690,218	.....	.....

The imports of the second and third quarter have been larger, it appears, than in any year since 1839. These goods have been, added to the increased production of American manufacturers, greater than can find sale; and the dependence upon bank facilities to work them off, has improved the business of the institutions. The progress of bank dividends is apparent in the periodical returns of the Boston banks, which have been as follows:—

BOSTON BANK DIVIDENDS.

		October, 1842.		April, 1843.		April, 1844.		October, 1844.	
Banks.	*Capital.*	*Dividend.*	*Am't.*	*Dividend.*	*Am't.*	*Dividend.*	*Am't.*	*Dividend.*	*Am't.*
Atlas,.....	$500,000	2½ p. c.	$12,500	2½ p. c.	$12,500	2½ p. c.	none.	3 p. c.	$15,000
Atlantic, ...	500,000	3 "	15,000	3 "	15,000	3½ "	$12,500	2½ "	12,500
Boston,.....	600,000	3½ "	21,000	3½ "	21,000	3½ "	21,000	3½ "	21,000
City,.....	1,000,000	2 "	20,000	2 "	20,000	2 "	25,000	2½ "	25,000
Columbian, .	500,000	3 "	15,000	3 "	15,000	2½ "	10,000	2½ "	12,500
Eagle, ...	500,000	none.	....	3 "	15,000	3½ "	12,500	3 "	15,000
Freeman's,..	150.000	3½ p. c.	5,200	3½ "	5,200	3 "	5,250	3½ "	5,250
Globe,.....	1,000,000	3 "	30,000	3½ "	30,000	2 "	30,000	3 "	30,000
Granite,.....	500,000	2½ "	12,500	3 "	15,000	2 "	10,000	3 "	15,000
Hamilton, ..	500,000	3 "	15,000	3 "	15,000	2 "	10,000	2½ "	12,500
Massachu., *	800,000	$7 p. sh.	22,400	$7 p. sh.	22,400	3 "	16,000	2½ "	20,000
Market, ...	560,000	3 p. c.	16,800	3 p. c.	16,800	3 "	16,800	3 "	16,800
Mechanics', .	150,000	2 "	3,000	2½ "	3,075	3 "	4,500	3 "	4,500
Merchants',.	2,000.000	3½ "	70,000	3½ "	70,000	2½ "	60,000	3 "	60,000
N. England,.	1,000,000	3 "	30,000	3 "	30,000	2 "	25,000	3 "	30,000
North,.....	750,000	2 "	15,000	2 "	15,000	3 "	15,000	2½ "	18,750
Shoe & Leather Deal'rs,	500,000	3½ "	17,500	3 "	15,500	2½ "	15,000	3 "	15,000
Shawmut, ..	500,000	3 "	15,000	2½ "	10,250	2 "	12,500	2½ "	12,000
State, ...	1,800,000	3½ "	60,000	3 "	54,000	4 "	36,000	2½ "	45,000
Suffolk, ...	1,000,000	4 "	40,000	4 "	40,000	2½ "	40,000	4 "	40,000
Tremont, ...	500,000	none.	....	2 "	10,000	2 "	12,500	2½ "	12,500
Trader's,....	400,000	none.	....	none.	.....	. "	8,000	3 "	12,000
Union, ...	800,000	3½ "	24,000	3 p. c.	24,000	2½ "	20,000	2½ "	20,000
Washington,	500,000	2½ "	13,750	1½ "	7,500	1½ "	8,750	2 "	10,000
	$17,010,000		$471,150		$481.475		$426,300		$480,000
Dividend, April, 1842,.....					442,900				
Increase, ...					$38,575				

This gives six dividends on a capital of $17,000,000, as follows:—

April, 1842,.....	$442,900	October, 1843,.....	$417,000
October, 1842,.....	471,150	April, 1844,.....	426,300
April, 1843,.....	481,475	October, 1844,.....	480,000

This is the largest October dividend, and shows considerable improvement in the profits of the banks during the past summer. Notwithstanding the low rate of money, as compared with 1843, there is an increase of 15 per cent in the profits, which probably arose from an extension of credits in that proportion. Neither banks or stocks, however, seem to command confidence, as a means of investment. The experience of past years has been such, as to prevent much disposition to put money in banking concerns, which

are exposed to such disastrous revulsions as has been experienced within a few years. In the stocks of the states, there is little disposition to invest, except in the best descriptions, as New York and federal government. These have been bought up, however, and cannot be obtained at rates which yield more than 4½ per cent. In other sorts, the quantities upon the market, and the uncertainty in relation to the course of the delinquent states, prevent many purchases for investment; and the stock market presents large quantities floating in the hands of speculators. The following are the prices at which the latest transactions have taken place:—

PRICES OF STOCKS IN THE NEW YORK MARKET.

	Rate.	Red'mable.	April, 1843.	October.	February.	October 16.
U. States,.	5½	1844	... a ...	101 a ...	... a 102	100⅜ a 100½
"	6	1844	... a ...	102¼ a 102½	102½ a 102¾	100½ a 100⅝
"	6	1862	112 a 113	114¼ a 115½	115½ a 115¾	116¾ a 117⅛
"	5	1853	... a ...	103 a 103½	103 a 104	105½ a 106
N. York,..	7	1848–49	105 a 106	107 a 108	107½ a 108¼	107½ a 108½
"	6	1850–54–60	103 a 105	107 a 107½	106 a 109	109½ a 109¾
"	6	1861–62–67	103 a 105	107 a 107½	107½ a 108	111½ a 112½
"	5½	1860–61–65	97 a 98	102 a 102¼	103½ a 104	105 a 105½
"	5	1845	97 a 98	... a 100	100½ a 101	101¼ a 101½
"	5	1846–7–8–9	... a ...	99 a 100	100 a 101¼	101½ a 102½
"	5	1850–51–57	... a ...	99 a 100	101 a 102½	104 a 105
"	5	1855–58	93 a 94	98 a 99	101¼ a 102¼	104 a 105
"	5	1859–60–61	94 a 95	99 a 99	100 a 101	104 a 104½
"	4½	1849–58	87 a 88	91 a 93	92 a 98	96 a 98
"	7	1853	... a ...	... a ...	... a ...	108 a 108½
Ohio,.....	6	1850	69 a 70	94½ a 94¾	95¼ a 97	101½ a 101¾
"	6	1856-60	67 a 68	95 a 95½	97 a 98¼	101½ a 102¼
"	5	1850–56	54 a 55	82½ a 83	92 a 99	87 a 90
Kentucky,.	6	.....	89 a 89½	97½ a 98	102½ a 102¾	104½ a 105
Illinois,....	6	1870	23 a 23½	35¼ a 36½	42¼ a 42½	46 a 46¼
Indiana,...	5	25 years.	25 a 26	35 a 35¼	34 a 37	41¼ a 45
Arkansas,.	6	.....	28½ a 30	38 a 45	57 a 60	50 a 58
Alabama,..	6	.....	50 a 60	60 a 67	87 a 92	... a ...
"	5	.....	... a ...	58 a 60	80 a 82	81 a 81½
Penn'a,....	5	.....	41 a 42	61 a 61¼	... a 66¼	74½ a 74¾
Ten'ssee,.	6	.....	... a ...	90 a 92	100 a 102	104½ a ...
N. Y. city,	7	1857	107 a 110	111 a 112	114 a ...	117 a 118
"	7	1852	106 a 108	107 a 108	111 a 112	110 a 112
"	5	1850	94 a 95	99 a 99½	... a 100	... a ...
"	5	1858–70	94 a 95	99½ a 100	99½ a 100	102 a 103¼

The speculations were mostly in the non-dividend-paying railroads, although the Ohio 6's have been influenced, in some degree, by the supposition that, in case the new legislature passes a free banking law, on the plan of that of New York, making Ohio stock the basis of a paper circulation, a demand for that purpose will cause an advance in the stock. Railroads are, however, fast growing in public favor, from their permanency, safety, and the fair profits which they yield. The immense increase in their receipts, this year, have directed public attention to them; and there is every prospect that the surplus capital of the country will take that direction for investment.

The apprehensions that were entertained early in the summer, that an export of specie would take place during the autumn, have passed away, although foreign bills have nominally advanced to 10 a 10¼ per cent. This advance of ½ a 1 per cent, however, expresses rather the depreciation of the gold in our banks, subject to export, than any real improvement in the value of the bills; the actual demand for remittance, as compared with supply, being rather diminished, as the month draws to a close. Some considerable shipments of silver, amounting in all to near $2,000,000, consisting chiefly of Mexican dollars, *to France, have been made; the rate of exchange favoring the export of silver, when gold will not reimburse a shipment.* The following is a pro forma account of a shipment

of Mexican dollars to France and England, the calculations by J. F. Entz, Esq., of the New York Life Insurance and Trust Company:—

PRO FORMA ACCOUNT OF A SHIPMENT OF MEXICAN DOLLARS FROM NEW YORK TO LONDON.

20,000 dollars purchased at 1¼ per cent premium,.....		$20,350 00
Cost of 4 barrels, packing charges, cartage, &c.,.....		10 75
Insurance, at ½ per cent., on $20,350,.....	$101 75	
Policy,.....	1 25	
		103 00
Total cost in New York,.....		$20,463 75
The same 20,000 dollars, weighing 17,329 ounces, and sold at 4s. 10½d. per ounce,.....		£4,194 13 10
Charges—Freight per packet, ¼ per cent,.....	£10 8 4	
Primage, 5 per cent,.....	10 5	
Landing charges, postages, &c.,.....	1 5 9	
Brokerage, ⅛ per cent,.....	5 4 10	
Commission, ½ per cent.,.....	20 19 6	
		38 8 10
Nett proceeds, cash,.....		£4,156 5 0
Add interest of about 45 days, at 4 per ct., until the draft drawn against the shipment becomes due,.....		20 15 7
Total,.....		£4,177 0 7

This amount, drawn at 60 days' sight, to realize the above $20,463 75, the rate of exchange would have to be 110 23-100 per cent; which shows that the shipment would not be profitable, unless at least 110¼ per cent could be obtained for the draft. Without commission in London, the rate would be 109.67.6., or about 55-100 less.

The following is a table by which the rate of exchange may be ascertained, at any given price for silver, in London:—

TABLE SHOWING THE RATE OF EXCHANGE PRODUCED BY A SHIPMENT OF SPANISH, MEXICAN, UNITED STATES, OR OTHER DOLLARS, FROM NEW YORK TO LONDON.

London price per ounce.	PREMIUM ON DOLLARS IN NEW YORK. par.	¼ per ct.	½ p. ct.	¾ p. ct.	1 p. ct.	1¼ p. ct.	1½ p. ct.	1¾ p. ct.	2 p. ct.	2¼ p. ct.
Pence, 57⅛....	109.52	110.06	110.61	111.16	111.70	112.25	112.80	113.35	113.89	114.44
57¼...	109.28	109.82	110.37	110.92	111.46	112.01	112.55	113.10	113.65	114.19
57⅜...	109.04	109.59	110.13	110.68	111.22	111.77	112.31	112.86	113.40	113.95
57½...	108.80	109.35	109.89	110.44	110.98	111.52	112.07	112.61	113.16	113.70
58....	108.57	109.11	109.65	110.20	110.74	111.28	111.83	112.37	112.91	113.45
58⅛...	108.34	108.88	109.42	109.96	110.50	111.04	111.58	112.13	112.67	113.21
58¼...	108.10	108.64	109.18	109.72	110.26	110.80	111.34	111.88	112.43	112.97
58⅜...	107.87	108.41	108.95	109.49	110.03	110.57	111.11	111.65	112.18	112.72
58½...	107.64	108.18	108.72	109.25	109.79	110.33	110.87	111.41	111.94	112.48
58⅝...	107.41	107.95	108.48	109 02	109.56	110.09	110.63	111.17	111.70	112.24
58¾...	107.18	107.72	108.25	109.79	109.32	109.86	110.40	110.93	111.47	112.00
57⅞...	106.95	107.49	108.03	108.56	109.09	109.63	110.16	110.69	111.23	111.76
59....	106.73	107.26	107.79	108.33	108.86	109.39	109.93	101.46	110.99	111.53

London price per ounce.	PREMIUM ON DOLLARS IN NEW YORK. 2½ p. ct.	2¾ p. ct.	3 p. ct.	3¼ p. ct.	3½ p. ct.	3¾ p. ct.	4 p. ct.	4¼ p. ct.	5 p. ct.
Pence, 57⅛....	114.99	115.53	116.08	116.63	117.17	117.72	118.27	118.81	119.91
57¼...	114.74	115.28	115.83	116.38	116.92	117.47	118.02	118.56	119.66
57⅜...	114.49	115.04	115.58	116.13	116.67	117.22	117.77	118.31	119.41
57½...	114.24	114.78	115.33	115.88	116.42	116.97	117.52	118.06	119.16
58....	113.99	114.53	115.08	115.63	116.17	116.72	117.27	117.81	118.91
58⅛...	113.75	114.29	114.83	115.38	115.92	116.47	117.02	117.56	118.66
58¼...	113.51	114.05	114.59	115.14	115.68	116.23	116.78	117.32	118.42
58⅜...	113.26	113.80	114.35	114.89	115.43	115.98	116.53	117.07	118.17
58½...	113.02	113.56	114.10	114.65	115.19	115.74	116.29	116.83	117.93
58⅝...	112.78	113.32	113.86	114.41	114.95	115.50	116.05	116.59	117.69
58¾...	112.54	113.08	113.62	114.17	114.71	115.26	115.81	116.35	117.45
57⅞...	112.30	112.84	113.38	113.93	114.47	115.02	115.57	116.11	117.21
59....	111.83	112.37	112.91	113.46	114.00	114.55	115.10	115.64	116.74

EXAMPLE.—Mexican dollars costing 1½ per cent premium, and sold in London at 58⅛ pence per ounce, are equal to an exchange of 409.96.

The intermediate prices for dollars are found by taking the difference as follows, viz:—

Dollars, at 1½ per cent, and 58 pence,.....	1 per cent	=109.65
	1½ "	=110.20
Difference,.....		.55

One half of this, or 27½, added to 109.65=109.92.

PRO FORMA ACCOUNT OF A SHIPMENT OF MEXICAN DOLLARS FROM NEW YORK TO PARIS.

20,000 dollars, purchased at 1¼ per cent premium,.....		$20,350 00
Cost of 4 barrels, packing charges, &c.,.....		10 75
Insurance, at ½ per cent, on $20,350,.....	$101 75	
Policy,.....	1 25	
		103 00
Total cost in New York,.....		$20,463 75

The same 20,000 dollars sold in Paris at f. 5.34,.....			f. 106,800 00
Charges in Havre—Import duty, and permits,.....		f. 12.40	
" Cartage, cooperage, postages, &c.,.....		20.10	
" Freight, ⅛ per ct. on $20,600,.....	$50		
" Primage, 10 per cent,.....	5		
	$55		
At f. 5.25,.....		288.75	
Charges in Paris—Freight,.....		114.50	
" Viewing and delivering,.....		6.50	
" Brokerage, ⅛ per cent,.....		133.50	
" Commission, ½ per cent,.....		534.00	
			1,109.75
Nett proceeds, cash,.....			f. 105,690.25
Add interest of about 45 days, at 4 per ct., until the draft drawn against the shipment becomes due,.....			528.45
Total,.....			f. 106,218 70

This amount, drawn so as to realize the above $20,463 75, the rate of exchange would have to be 5.19; which shows that, unless this rate could be obtained for the draft, the shipment would not answer. Without commission in Paris, the result would be 5.21.6., or ⅛ per cent more. The steamers charge ⅛ per cent freight, but the additional expense is nearly compensated by the interest of about 15 days, thereby gained.

TABLE SHOWING THE RATE OF EXCHANGE ON PARIS, PRODUCED BY A SHIPMENT OF SPANISH, MEXICAN, OR OTHER DOLLARS, FROM NEW YORK TO PARIS.

Paris price per dollar.	PREMIUM ON DOLLARS IN NEW-YORK.										
	par.	⅛ per ct.	1 p. ct.	1⅛ p. ct.	2 p. ct.	2⅛ p. ct.	3 p. c.	3⅛ p. ct.	4 p. ct.	4⅛ p. ct.	5 p. c.
Francs, 5.30.....	5.24.2	5.21.6	5.19.0	5.16.4	5.13.9	5.11.4	5.08.9	5.06.4	5.04.0	5.01.6	4.99.2
5.32.....	5.26.1	5.23.5	5.20.9	5.18.4	5.15.8	5.13.3	5.10.8	5.08.4	5.05.9	5.03.5	5.01.1
5.34.....	5.28.1	5.25.5	5.22.9	5.20.3	5.17.8	5.15.3	5.12.8	5.10.3	5.07.8	5.05.4	5.03.0
5.36.....	5.30.1	5.27.5	5.24.9	5.22.3	5.19.7	5.17.2	5.14.7	5.12.2	5.09.7	5.07.3	5.04.9
5.38.....	5.32.1	5.29.5	5.26.8	5.24.2	5.21.7	5.19.1	5.16.6	5.14.1	5.11.6	5.09.2	5.06.8
5.40.....	5.34.1	5.31.4	5.28.8	5.26.2	5.23.6	5.21.1	5.18.5	5.16.0	5.13.6	5.11.1	5.08.7
5.42.....	5.36.1	5.33.4	5.30.8	5.28.1	5.25.6	5.23.0	5.20.5	5.17.9	5.15.5	5.13.0	5.10.6
5.44.....	5.38.0	5.35.4	5.32.7	5.30.1	5.27.5	5.24.9	5.22.4	5.19.9	5.17.4	5.14.9	5.12.4
5.46.....	5.40.0	5.37.4	5.34.7	5.32.1	5.29.5	5.26.9	5.24.3	5.21.8	5.19.3	5.16.8	5.14.3
5.48.....	5.42.0	5.39.3	5.36.7	5.34.6	5.31.4	5.28.8	5.26.2	5.23.7	5.21.2	5.18.7	5.16.2
5.50.....	5.44.0	5.41.3	5.38.6	5.36.0	5.33.3	5.30.7	5.28.2	5.25.6	5.23.1	5.20.6	5.18.1
.01.....	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	0.9

EXAMPLE.—Mex. dollars costing 1½ p. ct., sold at f. 5.36, will allow to draw at. f. 5.22.3
" " " " 5.35, " " . 5.21.3

The following is an account of sovereigns, as a remittance to London:—

1,000 sovereigns, bought in New York, at $4 90,.....		$4,900 00
Packing, shipping, bills of lading, &c.,.....	$3 50	
Marine insurance, ⅛ per cent; policy, $1 25,.....	25 75	
		29 25
Total cost in New York,.....		$4,929 25
Value in London,.....		£1,000 0 0
Freight, ½ per cent; primage, 5 per cent,.....	£5 5 0	
Landing charges, postages, &c.,.....	15 0	
		6 0 0
Proceeds,.....		£994 0 0
$4,929 25 would buy a bill at 110.60 per cent, for.....	£1,002 15 5	
Less 63 days interest, at 5 per cent,.....	8 15 5	
		£994 0 0

No commission is paid, or is included in this calculation.

The present price of sovereigns in New York is $4 84; but they are generally light, and will average near 1 per cent under the sovereigns of the present reign, which alone are currently received in London. Therefore, $4 90 would be the fair rate for full weight sovereigns here; but, as few such are to be obtained, a corresponding loss requires to be

submitted to on the other side. The following is a table showing the equivalent of a bill *at different prices of sovereigns in New York:—*

Price of sovereigns in U. S.,.	$4 82	$4 83	$4 84	$4 85	$4 86	$4 87	$4 88	$4 89
Equal to a bill at per cent....	108.80	109.03	109.25	109.48	109.70	109.93	110.15	110.38

The greater proportion of the gold here is of English coinage, and came here previous to, and simultaneous with, the proclamation, calling in light gold for re-coinage; and, as it remains in the vaults of the banks in the same shape in which it arrived, the effect is the same upon exchanges as if the currency of the United States was depreciated, in comparison with that of England. It is always a matter of profit for Europe to send her light coins here, as long as there is no mint at the port of entry, by which it can be converted into national coin, and made a legal tender only in that shape. If light sovereigns can pass currently here, we are wantonly exposed to the evil from which the government of England relieves itself, at great trouble and expense, by prohibiting the circulation of any but full coin, of the present reign. Notwithstanding all the expense attending four mints in operation, and one which has existed since the formation of the government, the national currency of the United States is in a most deplorable condition, because the mints are located at the wrong place. The mint at Philadelphia was the only one, up to 1835. In that year, three branches were organized—one at Charlotte, in the centre of the North Carolina gold region, and another at Dahlonega, in the heart of the mines of Georgia; the other at New Orleans, where the largest portion of silver is received from Mexico, and where the metals, as the centre of the southwestern trade, concentrate. The necessity of having these branches at the places where the metals are produced, or where they accumulate, was fully recognized at their establishment; but, singularly enough, Boston and New York, where two-thirds of all the specie that arrives in the country is received, are without means of coinage. Of $23,000,000 of specie, received in the country last year, $18,000,000 in gold came to New York and Boston, and very little of it was coined, because there was no mint. That in Philadelphia is of as little use as a branch located in Detroit, to coin the gold of Georgia, would have been. The mint was located in Philadelphia when that was the seat of government; and it was idly supposed that the mint should be with it, rather than at the centre of commerce. New York is now the centre of commerce, and of the commercial exchanges. To this point, all the specie in the country tends, at certain seasons; and at others it is the point of concentration from abroad, and from whence the imported metals radiate into all the channels of business, in all sections of the country. A mint situated here, would form the point to and from which all the metals would tend. The actual expense of sending gold to Philadelphia, to be brought back in the shape of American coin, is fully ⅛ per cent, counting the delay nothing, because the gold can remain in the mint at as little loss as in the bank vaults. This expense is, however, an effectual bar to coinage. The specie in the vaults of the New York and Boston banks is about $18,000,000. The expense of sending this to the mint for coinage, would be full $135,000; an expense to which it is clear no company or individuals would voluntarily submit. Hence, with such large sums of gold, idle and useless in the banks, the national coinage commands a premium of ¼ per cent in the street, before their doors. The gold is worth this premium, for the superior facility of its circulation. It is known and recognized when offered in payments, and accepted readily; whereas the foreign coins are not so well known, and disputes as to their value always arise. They, therefore, although a legal tender, are scarcely available as a currency, and the paper of the banks is taken in preference to a strange coinage, which, being a legal tender, the banks will not go to the trouble and expense of paying out American gold, although it is frequently demanded. The location of a mint in this city would cause nearly all the gold which arrives to be converted promptly into the United States coinage; and, while the demand for that description of currency would thus be supplied, the foreign exchanges would be governed by the actual comparative values of the currency, according to the governmental regulations.

MERCANTILE LAW DEPARTMENT.

DECISIONS IN THE SUPREME COURT OF LOUISIANA.*

SUIT TO RECOVER BALANCE OF AN ACCOUNT CURRENT.

In the Supreme Court of Louisiana, March 11, 1844. Mullandon *vs.* Martin. Judge Garland presiding.

The plaintiff claims the sum of $1,798 50, the balance of an account current between him and the defendant. The items in the account filed, are the balance of a former account rendered, and various charges of cash paid to the defendant, at different dates. The latter answers by a denial of any indebtedness to the plaintiff, but sets up a claim in reconvention against him for $6,000, for services rendered as master of the steam tow-boat Pacific, which belonged to the plaintiff, for three years previous to May 1, 1839, at the rate of $2,000 per annum, for which he prays for judgment. When the cause was called for trial, the plaintiff offered no evidence to sustain his demand, but discontinued it; and at the same time pleaded the prescription of one year to the demand in reconvention. The defendant offered evidence to prove that, for about three years previous to May 1, 1839, he was master of the steam tow-boat Pacific, belonging to the plaintiff, which was engaged in towing vessels from New Orleans to the Balize, and to sea, and back again, for hire. He proved that his services were worth $2,000 per annum; and it is shown that the plaintiff sold the boat about the 1st May, 1839. The demand in reconvention was presented and filed May 27, 1841, more than one year after the suit was commenced on the account, and more than two years after the defendant had left the service of the plaintiff. On the plea of prescription, the court below gave a judgment against the defendant on his demand in reconvention, and he has appealed.

The plaintiff, to sustain his plea of prescription, relies upon article 3,499 of the Civil Code, which provides that the action "for the payment of the freight of ships and other vessels, the wages of the officers, sailors, and others of the crew," shall be prescribed by one year. Upon this provision, apparently so clear, the counsel for the defendant have based a long and ingenious argument, to prove that the master or captain of a ship or steamboat is not an officer within its meaning, and that his wages are only prescribed by ten years. They tell us that, among nautical men, the master of a merchant ship is not considered or called an officer, and that he does not form a part of the crew. Upon this subject, the record gives no information; but, as our code was framed by legal men, we are to presume they looked to legal works for definitions, and the meaning of particular words. Bouvier, in his Law Dictionary, vol. 2, p. 105, gives a definition of the term "master of a ship," viz: "the commander or first officer of a ship, a captain, &c." The definition given by Professor Wilson, of the words *maitre de navire*, is master, captain or commander of a ship, vide Wilson's French and English Dictionary—verbo *maitre*. The Lex Mercatoria Americana, p. 131, says the master of a ship is he to whom is committed the government, care, and direction of the vessel and cargo. In their nomination, the amount of interest, not numbers, predominates; "but when constituted, they, like all other officers of the public," are accountable, &c. The mate of a merchant ship is called "the first officer under the master," p. 181. Curtis, in his Treatise on the Rights and Duties of Merchant Seamen, p. 161, says, "the master of a merchant vessel is that officer to whom is entrusted the entire command of the ship," &c., appointed by the owners, and he stands towards them in a different light than towards third persons. Chancellor Kent says, "the captain of a ship is an officer to whom great power, momentous interests, and large discretions are *necessarily* confided," &c. Notwithstanding these definitions, the

* *Originally* reported for the New Orleans Bulletin.

counsel insists that our code, and the acts of Congress, do not consider the master or captain of a merchant ship as an officer. They first refer us to article 3,204, Nos. 6, 7, 11. It will be remembered that this article is one which states what privileges are allowed upon ships and merchandise. The first clause gives a privilege to the captain for his wages; and it was probably thought necessary to name him, as the commercial law, from motives of policy, did not give such a right. The second clause gives a privilege for money lent to the captain, to purchase necessaries for the vessel. It was necessary to name the captain, for the purpose of designating the officer to whom the money must be lent, to entitle the lender to a privilege. We see nothing in the eleventh clause which can be viewed as declaring that the captain is not an officer of the ship, or calculated to raise such a presumption. It is the clause that gives the owners of goods or merchandise a privilege for damages sustained through the fault of the captain or crew. Article 3,213 gives the captain a lien for the freight on the merchandise he transports in his ship, without which he would have lost a right accorded by the commercial law; but does that prove that he is not an officer? The right is given, not because the captain is not an officer, but because he is the commanding officer. The mate would have the same right, if, by the death of the master at sea, or any other such cause, he should become the commander of the vessel. The name of captain implies an office, and conveys an idea of an officer in the general understanding of the term. We have been referred to the act of Congress of 3d March, 1835, section 3, to prove that the master is not an officer. It commences by declaring that, if any master or other officer of any American ship or vessel on the high seas, shall maliciously beat or imprison the crew, &c., he shall be punished, &c. These words, master or other officer, the counsel tell us, do prove that the master is no officer, and was not so considered by Congress. To sustain this assertion, we are referred to another act of July 20th, 1790, section 3, which provides "that if the mate, or first officer under the master, and a majority of the crew of any ship or vessel," &c. Now will not the words "mate, or first officer under the master," as conclusively prove that the mate is not an officer, as the words "master or other officer" prove that the master is not an officer? It appears to us they do.

The counsel further rely upon a decision in 3 Sumner's Reports, 209, to support their view of the case. This was a prosecution under the act of Congress of 1835, against the master of a ship, for beating and confining the mate; and the question was, whether the mate, who was called the chief officer of the ship, made a part of the crew. Judges Story and Davis held that he did form a part of the crew; and the opinion as clearly proves that the master, too, is often included as a portion of the crew. In the piracy act of 1819, ch. 200, the public ships of the U. S. are directed to protect merchant vessels and their crews from piratical aggression, &c. This expression as clearly includes the master and officers, as it does the sailors. So, in the piracy act of 1820, it is said if any person, being of the crew or ship's company of any piratical vessel, shall land, &c., they shall be punished, &c. There cannot be a doubt, we suppose, that these words would include the piratical captain, if he were taken and prosecuted. In common parlance, we often hear it said that "the vessel was lost, but that the crew was saved." Would any one infer from this that the master was drowned, because, in technical language, he formed no part of the crew, and was not an officer?

The counsel, in relying upon the French authorities, seem to forget that it is a matter of regulation in France, under the code of commerce, and various ordinances, which keeps up a distinction between the master and his subordinates. There are different grades of commanders; the captain, the master and patron, depending on the size of the vessels they command, and the voyages they make, whether foreign or coastwise. We have no doubt that the master of a merchant ship or steamboat is an officer within the meaning of article 3,499 of the code, and that the action for his wages is prescribed by the lapse of one year. We do not think that, because the defendant chooses to call his

compensation a salary instead of wages, it changes the law in relation to prescription. The argument that steam tow-boats are not vessels performing voyages, as other vessels or steamboats, was met and decided on in the case of Davis v. Heaton, &c.

We are further of opinion that the defendant does not come within the exception of article 3,500 of the code, which declares that the prescription does not run where there is a note given, or account acknowledged. There was no note or account acknowledged in this case. On the contrary, the account of the plaintiff is denied in the answer. The last item in that account is dated the 26th of January, 1838, more than three years before the defendant set up his demand. It is not alleged nor proved that the sums which the plaintiff charges as having been paid to the defendant, were on account of his demand for services as master of the boat, nor can they be so supposed. The plaintiff has not proved they were paid at all; and as the defendant denies it, we take it to be true that they were not. But, admitting they were so paid, the defendant cannot benefit by it, as more than three years have elapsed between the last payment and the presentation of his demand. Judgment affirmed.

COLLISION—STEAMER OHIO BELLE AND SCHOONER CREOLE.

In the Supreme Court of Louisiana, April, 1844, Judge Ballard presiding. Western Marine Insurance and Fire Company *vs.* Cassely, *et al.* Larose *vs.* the same.

Judge Bullard—These two actions are instituted against the owners of the steamer Ohio Belle, to recover damages resulting from a collision between that boat and the schooner Creole, alleged to have occurred by the fault of its officers. One of them is brought by the owner of the schooner, which was sunk, and totally lost, and the other by the underwriters, who had paid for one hundred hogsheads of sugar, the cargo of the schooner, insured by them. The two cases were cumulated and tried together, and the defendants are appellants from a judgment in each case against them. The collision occurred in the night, when the steamer was ascending the river Mississippi, and the schooner was descending. In such cases, it is extremely difficult to ascertain with proper certainty the circumstances attending the accident, owing partly to the confusion and alarm with which such casualties are always attended, and partly to the bias on the minds of the crew, and even the passengers on board, in favor each of their own vessels. The mind of the judge or jury is thus liable to become bewildered and confused by these cross-lights of evidence, and finds it difficult to figure to itself the exact position of the two vessels immediately preceding and at the moment of the collision, and to ascertain the means used by one or both to avoid the catastrophe. In the present case, for example, if we believe the officers and crew of the schooner, it was a clear, star-light night; while it is equally well proved by the officers and passengers on board the steamer that it was very dark, and had been raining, although the outline of the bank of the river was visible, and sufficiently distant for safe navigation. One thing, however, appears certain, to wit: that the schooner struck the steamer head on, nearly at right angles, between the fore-hatchway and the boilers, and the starboard side; her bow was stove in, and she sunk very soon, while the steamer received no injury.

Between a vessel propelled by steam, and another by wind, under ordinary circumstanstances, the means of avoiding a collision are greatly in favor of the former, in consequence of the control which human ingenuity has contrived over the more powerful agent itself, by means of which the vessel may be stopped, its course changed in any direction, and even backed. In one respect, however, the steamer has no advantage over the sailing vessel in the night. A steamer may be seen; and, when on the high pressure principle, may be heard at a much greater distance than a sailing vessel. The fires of the furnace, the lights from the cabin-windows, the volume of black smoke, and often pencils of sparks issuing from the chimneys, and the puffs of the escape-pipe, give warning of its approach. At the same time, the noise of the engine and the wheels, and the escape of

steam, renders it more difficult to hear the hailing of another boat, or cries from the banks of the river. Hence it is not difficult to account for the officers on board the Ohio Belle not having heard the repeated hailing from on board the schooner. It is also well known that with a light near the eye, distant objects cannot be seen as well as without such light; and hence we find no difficulty in giving credence to the uncontradicted statement of the officers and passengers on board the steamer, that the schooner was not seen until she had approached very near the steamer, certainly not further off than two hundred yards, some of the witnesses say much nearer, and approaching in a direction to cross the track of the steamer, nearly at right angles. In this, the concurrent positive testimony of all the witnesses who were on board the steamer must outweigh the negative statements, or opinions of others, either on shore or on board the schooner.

The plaintiffs cannot complain if we take the statement of the captain of the schooner as true in relation to the circumstances which preceded the collision. It is admitted that the schooner was descending the river after having taken in her full cargo of sugar, and was under full sail. The captain says in his testimony, "when they first saw the steamer, she was about a mile and a half from the schooner, and was hugging the shore, as they usually do, and the schooner was in the middle of the river—the wind was northwest, being in an excellent quarter to descend the river." According to this account of the occurrence, about fifteen minutes elapsed from the time they first saw the steamer, to the moment when the concussion took place. With the wind and current both favorable, it is not easy to understand why the captain of the schooner did not change his course so as to avoid the steamer. It is not satisfactorily shown that anything prevented his doing so. On the other hand, there appears no good reason to doubt that there was a proper look-out on board the steamer, and that the schooner was not seen until it was so near as to leave little time for proper measures to avoid her.

It has been urged as a proof of culpable recklessness on the part of the officers of the steamer, that they did not stop to offer assistance to the sufferers on board of the schooner. Such an argument would have considerable force, if it were shown that the extent of the injury was known at the moment. But the thing was so sudden, and created such alarm for the safety of the steamer itself, that, in the confusion and darkness, no one appears to have been aware that any serious injury had been inflicted. Upon the whole, an attentive examination of the whole evidence leaves it doubtful, in our opinion, whether any fault was attributable to the defendants; and we think the plaintiffs have failed to make out their case.

It is therefore ordered and decreed, that the judgment of the District Court be reversed; and it is further adjudged that ours be for the defendants, with costs in both courts.

BILLS OF EXCHANGE.

In the Supreme Court of Louisiana, 1844, Judge Bullard presiding. The Northern Bank of Kentucky *vs.* Leverich, *et al.*

The plaintiffs allege, in their petition, that about the 5th of May, 1841, one A. T. Bowie, drew a bill of exchange on J. H. Leverich & Co., in favor of Daniel Vertner, or order, for fourteen hundred dollars, payable seven months after date, which bill was transferred by Vertner to them before its maturity, and remitted to the Union Bank for collection; but that the same was lost; and, upon application to their agent, the said Leverich & Co. assumed, and promised to pay the same out of the proceeds of property of the drawer in their hands, whereby they became liable as acceptors for the said amount, when the amount should be realized out of property of the drawer, which was subsequently done; and that they have failed to pay the same, though demanded.

The defendant, James H. Leverich, in answer to interrogatories on facts and articles, admits that he was advised by Bowie that he had drawn a bill on J. H. Leverich & Co., and requested them to pay it, but such advice did not come to hand till several months

after drawing the bill; that about the 10th of February, 1842, he received a letter from Bowie, informing him that he was about to ship cotton to his house, and directing them to pay the bill in question. This letter he exhibited to Major Tilford and Mr. Frey; and, acting as the agent of Bowie, he did promise to pay the said bill out of the proceeds of said cotton to be shipped, as stated in the letter. That the cotton arrived about the 21st of February, 1842, and the owner Bowie came with it, and countermanded the order given by his previous letter. That on the day of his arrival, he (Leverich) called on Major Tilford, and informed him that Bowie had directed him not to pay the draft, and at the same time told him that Bowie was in New Orleans, and that he, Major Tilford, had better see him, and arrange it between themselves; and at the same time told Major Tilford that J. H. Leverich & Co. would not pay the draft. Major Tilford, at that time, lodged at the St. Charles Hotel, as well as Bowie; and he, Leverich, apprised him of the fact, and they both remained in New Orleans several days afterwards. Major Tilford was President of the Northern Bank of Kentucky, and was their agent. He further admits that the cotton shipped was sufficient to pay the draft; but he paid the same to Bowie or his order.

The above statement is substantially corroborated by the testimony of Frey. The promise to pay the bill out of the proceeds of cotton which should be received, was a conditional acceptance of the bill of exchange, and that acceptance became absolute on the receipt of a sufficient amount by the defendants, unless they were discharged by the notice given by Leverich to Tilford, as above stated. It cannot be admitted that a drawer can countermand a draft accepted, so as to discharge the acceptor, without the consent of the holder. Leverich ought not to have received the cotton on consignment, if he was not willing to pay the draft out of the proceeds. The order of Bowie could not release him from that obligation. But it is said that the president of the bank, who was at the same time its agent, was notified of this new order of Bowie, not to pay his draft. This is true; but it cannot be fairly inferred that he, by his silence or inaction, assented to the release of Leverich from his conditional obligation; because, although he was the president of the bank, and agent at the same time, it does not appear that he had authority from the corporation to release Leverich from his contract; and certainly, without such consent, either express or implied, he could not rid himself of his obligation. No such consent, in our opinion, is shown.

But the appellant contends that there is no evidence of the transfer of the bill, and that the signature of Vertner, the payee, must be proved, before a recovery can be had. A witness testifies that Vertner admitted that he had transferred the bill to the plaintiffs. The circumstances of the case are peculiar. The bill never came to hand. The acceptance was given with a knowledge of that fact. The defendants are not, therefore, parties to the bill by a written acceptance, and consequently run no risk of its being presented hereafter; nor is it possible to prove the endorsement in the ordinary mode. The defendants treated with the Bank of Kentucky, as the holders; and, under these circumstances, slight evidence of the title of the plaintiffs ought to suffice. The acknowledgment of the drawee, that he had transferred the note, appears to us sufficient, and not liable to any objection. It is not hearsay, but rather an admission of a party to a bill; and would, perhaps, not be good evidence, because secondary, if the bill itself could be produced on the trial. The declaration of Vertner would prevent him from ever recovering the amount of the bill of exchange as holder.

Interest was allowed by the judgment, from the 9th December, 1841. In this, we think, there was error, as the draft was not protested. It should have been given only from judicial demand. The judgment of the District Court is therefore reversed; and it is further *ordered and decreed that the* plaintiff recover of James H. Leverich & Co. $1,400, *with 5 per cent interest from the* 21st of February, 1843, the day of the judicial demand, *with costs in the District Court*, those of the appeal to be paid by the appellees.

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

TARIFF OF CHARGES AT ST. LOUIS.

TARIFF OF CHARGES ESTABLISHED BY THE CHAMBER OF COMMERCE OF THE CITY OF ST. LOUIS, TO GOVERN MERCHANTS, SEPTEMBER 3, 1844.

Commissions.

On sales of country produce, tobacco in hhd., except where the amount is under $200,	5 per cent.
Over $200,	2½ "
On sales of coffee, sugar, and molasses,	2½ "
" other merchandise, from the east or south,	5 "
" lead,	1½ "
For purchasing and shipping merchandise or produce, with the exception of lead, with funds in hand, on the aggregate cost and charges,	2½ "
For purchasing and shipping lead,	1½ "
For guaranteeing sales on time, 1½ per cent per month.	
For shipping to another market produce or merchandise on which advances have been made, on gross sales,	1½ "
For accepting drafts, endorsing notes or bills of exchange, without funds, bills of lading, or produce in hand,	2½ "
For cash advances, in all cases, even with produce or bills of lading in hand, with interest from date, at 10 per cent per annum,	2½ "
For negotiating drafts or notes, as drawer or endorser,	2½ "
On sales or purchase of stocks,	1 "
On sale or purchase of boat, without guarantee,	2½ "
For procuring freight, on amount of freight,	5 "
For chartering boats,	2½ "
For collecting freight or accounts,	2½ "
For collecting delayed and litigated accounts,	5 "
For collecting dividends on stocks,	½ "
For adjusting insurance losses, if paid promptly, at the expiration of 60 days from proof,	1½ "
If not paid promptly, at 60 days from proof,	2½ "
For effecting insurance, on amount of premium,	10 "
On outfits or disbursements,	2½ "

The above commissions to be exclusive of storage, brokerage, and every other charge actually incurred.

The risk of loss by fire, unless insurance be ordered, and of robbery, theft, and other unavoidable occurrences, if the usual care be taken to secure the property, is in all cases to be borne by the proprietors of the goods.

Interest to be charged at the rate of 8 per cent per annum, on all moneys, accounts, or debts, after maturity, until paid.

Rates for receiving and forwarding Goods, exclusive of charges actually and necessarily incurred.

Sugar, per hogshead,	37½ cents
Tobacco,	37½ "
Pork, beef, whiskey, molasses, lard, and tallow, in bbls.,	7 "
Flour, beans, wheat, beeswax, and flaxseed, in bbls.,	4 "
Corn, oats, wheat, salt, barley, and flaxseed, in sacks, when under 100 sacks,	3 "
Over 100 sacks,	2 "
Lead, per pig,	1 "
Nails and lard, per keg, when under 50 kegs,	3 "
Over 50 kegs,	2 "
Wool and hemp, per bale,	6¼ "
Bacon, in hhds.,	18 "
" in bulk, per 100 lbs.,	10 "
Bagging, per bale,	4 "
Bale rope, per coil,	
Coffee, per sack,	
Hides, each,	

Gunpowder, per keg,	25	cents.
Carriages or wagons, each,	$2 00	"
Gigs or carts,	1 00	"
Merchandise, assorted, per 100 lbs.,	10	"

Other articles in proportion.

Rates of Storage.

	Per mo.		Per mo.
Tobacco, per hhd.	50 c.	100 lbs. dried "	10
Sugar,	25	Crate of queensware, or cask, small size,	18¾
Molasses,	50	Crate of queensware, or cask, large size,	37½ c.
Bacon,	25	Bags of coffee, pepper, and pimento,	5
Liquor, per hhd. or pipe	50	100 lbs. iron, steel, lead, and shot,	5
Oil,	50	Bbl. turpentine,	10
Oil, per hhd. or tierce	37½	Bale gunny bags,	12½
Flaxseed or rice, per tierce	18¾	Manufactured tobacco, per box	8
Salt, per bbl.	6	100 lbs. dry-goods, or other merchandise, in assorted lots,	5
Oil, molasses, or foreign liquors,	12½	Salt, per sack, large size,	6
Whiskey and cider,	10	" small do.,	3
Sugar, fish, lard, pork, or beef,	6¼	White lead, per keg	2
Flour, apples, bread and beans,	4	Nails,	3
Bacon in boxes, per 100 lbs.	4	Ton dye-wood,	$1 00
Lard, in kegs,	2	Hamper of bottles,	18¾
Window glass, in boxes,	3	Ream writing and wrapping paper,	1
" in half do.,	2	Cask of cheese,	8
Hemp yarn, per 100 lbs.	4	100 lbs. tea,	10
Hemp in bales, per bale	8	Other articles, in proportion.	
Bale rope, per coil	4		
Piece bagging, 50 yards, or less,	4		
Larger, in proportion.			
100 lbs. cordage, tarred or white,	4		
100 lbs. salted hides,	6¼		

The rules of commission under the head respecting fire, robbery, theft, &c., to apply also in case of storage.

Agency for Steamboats.

Under 150 tons,	$10 per trip.
Over 150 " and not less than 300 tons,	20 "
Over 300 " and less than 400 "	25 "
Over 400 " and upwards,	30 "

NEW BELGIAN TARIFF OF CUSTOMS DUTIES.

The Belgian government has entirely remodelled the tariff, and now adopted a scale of differential duties on colonial and other raw produce, with the special view of protecting national shipping and direct intercourse with transatlantic countries, and generally the countries of production.

This new tariff entered into force on the 29th instant. The details follow hereafter, as far as regards the principal American staple articles of export to this country, but the following points require particular attention:—

1. That, by a special disposition, all the raw produce of the United States, imported into a Belgian port by vessels of the United States, and duly qualified as such, will not pay any higher duty than the same produce imported direct by Belgian vessels; American being thus assimilated to our national vessels, in the particular case alluded to.

2. That, although the new tariff came into operation on the 29th of this month, many articles specified in the following list, and the duty on which has undergone an increase, will have to bear this increase successively, and in fractional rates; the full duty not coming to be levied before the 28th July, 1845. Thus, for instance:—Ashes, which, according to general tariff, *are under a duty of* frs. 2 per 100 kil., if imported direct from the United *States, by any vessel neither Belgian* or American, will not pay above frs. 4.35 until 28th *July, 1845, always, if imported* in that same mode.

3. That the 16 pr. of syndicate, levied hitherto, over and above all the customs duties, will continue being levied on all articles, as a general rule.

4. Should a shipment be made from the United States to a Belgian port, by any vessel having to call for orders at Cowes, or at any other intermediate, and other than American or Belgian port, though not entering there into any operation of loading or unloading, (a circumstance which would annul the privilege of direct importation,) it will be indispensable for the shipper to apply to the Belgian consul at the port of shipment, and to have it distinctly stated on the charter-party and bill of lading, or on the manifest, that the goods are for Belgian account, or go to the consignment of a party in Belgium. Should there be no Belgian consul at the port of shipment, the signature of the government agent of any befriended nation will suffice.

This regulation will not, however, take its effect sooner than 1st October, 1844, for the whole western coast, and the islands of Northern and Southern America; nor sooner than 1st January, 1845, for countries eastward of the Cape of Good Hope, or westward of Cape Horn.

The Belgian consuls at the different transatlantic ports will, no doubt, receive government instructions by this conveyance, and be able to give fullest particulars on all the points connected with the execution of the present new law, about the formalities required for bills of lading to order, shipments by other than Belgian or American vessels, &c., &c.

5. That for American produce, other than those articles specially denominated in the table of duties, Belgian consuls' or (in the absence of consular agents) American authorities' certificates will be required to state the American origin.

Antwerp, 31st July, 1844.

REGULATION RELATIVE TO BRAZIL WOOD.

CONSULATE-GENERAL OF THE EMPIRE OF BRAZIL IN U. STATES,
New York, Sept. 24th, 1844.

The exportation of Brazil wood from the ports of Brazil, has always been an exclusive privilege of the Imperial government; but, as abuses have occurred, and some vessels, perhaps through ignorance of the Brazilian laws in relation to the trade, have exported on private account the said article to foreign ports, it is made known, to those whom it may concern, that the laws of Brazil forbid entirely the exportation of the article by private individuals, and impose a fine of 30 mil reis ($15) a ton on each vessel that may take the wood by contraband, from any part of the empire, to foreign countries. The fine will be enforced, even after the departure of the vessel from Brazil; for which purpose, the government has taken all necessary measures to arrest the aiders and abettors in the clandestine shipment.

LUIZ HENRIQUE FERREIRA D'AGUIAR, Consul-General.

TONNAGE DUTIES OF BRAZIL.

CONSULATE-GENERAL OF THE EMPIRE OF BRAZIL IN U. S. OF AMERICA,
New York, October 9th, 1844.

Art. 1. From the 11th November, 1844, the anchorage dues upon Brazilian and foreign ships in foreign trade, will be reduced to 900 reis, and the dues upon the Brazilian coastwise vessels to 90 reis a ton, for what period soever they may remain in port.

Art. 2. Ships arriving in ballast, and sailing with cargo, and arriving with cargo, and sailing in ballast, will pay one-half the dues—entering and clearing in ballast, one-third dues.

Art. 3. Ships entering for provisions, or in Franquia to try the market, whether in ballast or with cargo, will pay one-third.

Art. 4. Ships entering under average, or in distress, will pay nothing, unless they discharge or take cargo; being allowed to discharge the necessary cargo for the payment of the expenses incurred.

Art. 5. Ships that have paid in any port of the empire the anchorage dues of the articles 1st, 2d, and 3d, arriving in another port in the same voyage, pay nothing excepting taking cargo, and then have to pay the difference of the dues.

Art. 6. Coastwise vessels, trading between the ports of the empire, will pay one-half the dues when half the crew be composed of Brazilian citizens; and will pay nothing if, besides this circumstance, they be employed in the coast or in the high sea fishery.

Art. 7. Vessels of countries that will charge more dues upon Brazilian tonnage, or port dues higher than dues paid by their own vessels, are subject, in the ports of Brazil, to pay one-third more of the dues established, or to be raised to the same difference imposed by said countries upon the Brazilian vessels.

LUIR HENRIQUE FERREIRA D'AGUIAR, Consul-General.

THE OVERLAND ROUTE TO INDIA.

The arrangements made for extending the communications with India and China, are understood, says the London Times, to be as follows:—There is to be a communication with Bombay, as at present. The East India Company's steamers are to leave Bombay on the first of every month, with mails, &c., for Suez, and the government is to provide steamers to convey them from Alexandria to Marseilles. This portion of the mails will arrive in London about the third and fourth of every month. Another, or immediate line of communication, is to be performed by the steamers of the Oriental Company, under contract with the board of admiralty. This line will leave Calcutta about the 10th of every month for Suez, calling at Madras and Point de Galle, in Ceylon, and will arrive at Suez in about twenty-five days after leaving Calcutta. From Suez, the mails will be carried across Egypt to Alexandria, where they will be embarked in the Oriental Company's steamers, the Oriental and Great Liverpool, for Southampton, where they will arrive about the 21st of every month. There will thus be a communication twice a month with India—one via Bombay, and the other to Calcutta direct. With the Calcutta line, a monthly communication with China is to be connected. A line of steamers is also to be provided by the Oriental Company, to run between Ceylon and Hong-Kong, and to touch at Penang and Singapore. These will take from, and deliver to the Calcutta steamers at Ceylon, the China mails. By this arrangement, the correspondence will be transmitted between London and Calcutta in forty to forty-two days, and between London and Hong-Kong in forty-eight days. The Calcutta mail service is to commence in January next.

NEWSPAPER POSTAGE ABOLISHED AT PORTO RICO.

George Lattimore, Esq., United States consul at St. John, Porto Rico, addressed a note to Capt. Fessenden, of the brig North Bend, just previous to his departure from the island, stating that he had that moment received an official notice from the captain-general, informing him that the heavy postage heretofore exacted on American newspapers is abolished; and that, in future, they shall be admitted free.

VESSELS BOUND TO PORTO RICO.

Pablo Chacon, the Consul-General of Spain, under date of "Consulate-General of Spain, Philadelphia, August 22d, 1844," publishes the following notice:—

"I hereby notify all shippers, owners, and captains of vessels bound to the island of Porto Rico, that the manifest roll of equipage, and all invoices, must be certified by the Spanish consul resident at the port of their departure; and without these requisites, the captains, supercargoes, or consignees of the vessels, will be compelled to give security in 10 per cent of the *value of the* vessel and cargo, until the presentation of said consular *documents. Vessels touching at St.* Thomas, or the adjacent islands, are not exempt from *this regulation; for the enforcement* of which, the strictest orders have been issued."

EXPLANATION OF THE U. S. DUTY ON COFFEE.

It will be recollected that, in the early part of August, the secretary of the treasury addressed a letter to the collectors of the customs, stating that the levying of a duty of 20 per cent upon coffee imported in vessels of the Netherlands from places other than those of its growth or production, as had been done under the tariff law of 1842, was a violation of the treaty with that nation, and directing them to refund the amounts so collected. The circular seems not to have been fully understood; and the following letter, in reply to some inquiries, contains the secretary's explanations:—

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, Sept. 12, 1844.

To Messrs. Oelrichs & Lurman, Baltimore:

Gentlemen—I have to acknowledge the receipt of your letter of the 9th inst. By the treaty of the 19th January, 1839, between the United States of America and the king of the Netherlands, it is agreed in the first article, "goods and merchandise, whatever their origin may be, imported into or exported from ports of the United States, from or to the ports of the Netherlands in Europe, in vessels of the Netherlands, shall pay no other or higher duties than shall be levied on the like goods and merchandise, so imported or exported in national vessels. And reciprocally goods and merchandise, whatever their origin may be, imported into or exported from the ports of the Netherlands in Europe, from or to the ports of the United States, in vessels of the said States, shall pay no other or higher duties than shall be levied on the like goods and merchandise so exported or imported in national vessels," &c.

This treaty, extending likewise to drawbacks, tonnage duties, harbor dues, &c., leaves the two contracting nations free to levy, by the laws of their respective nations, whatsoever duties, in their own ports respectively, upon their national vessels, and upon goods and merchandise imported in national vessels, or foreign vessels, which to the respective governments shall seem fit. If goods and merchandise, imported into the United States in vessels of the United States, are by the law of the United States exempted from duty, that exception, like goods and merchandise imported into the United States in vessels of the Netherlands, is, by the treaty, due to the goods and merchandise so imported into the United States, in vessels of the Netherlands.

Whatsoever duties or exemptions may be levied or granted, by the law of the Netherlands, in respect of goods and merchandise imported into the Netherlands, in their ports in Europe, in vessels of the Netherlands, no other or higher duties are to be levied, and the like exemptions are to be granted to the like goods and merchandise imported in vessels of the United States into the ports of the Netherlands in Europe. By the law of the United States, of 30th August, 1842, "tea and coffee, when imported in American vessels from the places of their growth or production," shall be exempt from the duty by that act levied upon those articles when imported in foreign vessels. The duty of 20 per cent ad valorem on coffee, imported into the United States in vessels of the Netherlands, had been levied and collected in certain instances, at the ports of the United States. Of this, the minister of the king of the Netherlands made complaint, as being in contravention of the treaty. That complaint is the subject treated in the circular to collectors and naval officers, sent from this department, and alluded to in your letter. The instruction in the circular relates to coffee imported in vessels of the Netherlands. No instruction is therein given as to coffee imported in vessels of the United States. As to coffee imported in vessels of the Netherlands, the treaty is the rule and guide.

As to the duty on coffee imported in vessels of the United States, (or foreign vessels other than those of the Netherlands,) the circular has left it to the collectors and naval officers to be ruled and guided by the law of the Congress of the United States, of 1842.

The treaty is a supreme law of this land—the Congress cannot make a valid enaction in violation of the stipulations of the treaty. Such violation, if persisted in and executed, would be a breach of public faith, and a stain upon the national honor.

The Congress have full power to levy whatsoever duties they shall see fit, upon goods imported in vessels of the United States. To that, the treaty is not opposed. But the Congress cannot levy duties upon goods imported in vessels of the Netherlands, which duties would, if collected, be in violation or contravention of the treaty. In such cases of conflict, the treaty is the law and the rule—the enaction of the Congress is no law, no rule; but is over-ridden and made impotent by the superior obligations of the treaty. The advantages resulting from the treaty in favor of the vessels of the Netherlands in the ports of the United States, are fully compensated by the advantages resulting from the stipulations of the treaty in favor of the vessels of the United States in the ports of the Netherlands. If those stipulations shall be violated in the ports of the Netherlands, (a case not to be presumed,) the government of the United States, upon information of such infraction, will

to interpose in seeking redress from the government of the Netherlands. Having going principles in view, it is the intention of this department that the duty of 20 ad valorem shall be collected and retained on coffee imported in vessels of the States, from places other than those of its growth or production Upon such cases, ty between the United States and the Netherlands has no operation.
collectors and naval officers, with the law of 1842, and the manifests before them, ermine whether coffee, imported in vessels of the United States, is subject to, or d from the duty. I am, gentlemen, respectfully yours,

GEORGE M. BIBB, Sec'y of Treasury.

NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

ISLAND OF ICHABOE.

mportance attached to the guano trade, at this time, by a portion of our commer-lers, will, perhaps, render the following directions for making the guano island of , useful to navigators. It is an extract of a letter received at Lloyd's, London, haboe, May 22, 1844.

DIRECTIONS FOR THE ISLAND OF ICHABOE.

sels bound to Ichaboe should by all means, if possible, make the land to the south-this place. I do not think it necessary to make Pedestal Point, for they may be l looking for the Pillar and Cross, as I have been informed by several ship-masters re, who have made the Point, that they do not exist.* If vessels make the land outhward, it is quite sufficient. Ichaboe lies in lat. 26. 19. S., lon. 15. E. If, un-ely, a vessel should be driven to the north by strong gales from the southward, or se, I would recommend working along shore; going in as near as is prudent the evening, and stretch off a part of the night, so as to be near the land again, or two after sunrise. By so doing, they would take advantage of the land-breeze, aries a few points at night from the land. The current is not always alike, neither always run with the same velocity. When about the latitude of between 26. 15., 25., and the land is made, mountains will be seen inland. Bring these to bear nd steer directly for them—there will be no difficulty in making Ichaboe.
land to the north of those mountains is level, composed of sand-hills and decom-anite. When the island is seen, steer for it until you come within two or three then go between the south part of the island and the main. I recommend this as the best, for many reasons. In the first place, there is a passage within a quar-mile of the island, above a mile wide—the wind is generally from the southward, current is seldom from any other quarter than running to the northward. If you is north passage, it is more shallow; and, on account of the wind being southerly, current running northerly, it is next to impossible to beat up to a good berth, as s lying so close together will not admit beating, without doing or receiving da-r both. There is a reef off the south end of the island, as also one off the main at there is a mile between them, with a good depth of water—so that a line-of-ip might beat between them without any danger; and you can let go your anchor u to windward, and drop your vessel in any berth you choose.

subsequent information, it appears that the pillar and cross do exist, but of so mensions as to be invisible except when very close to it.

GANGWAY ROCK OF HYANNIS.

is a dangerous rock, says the Boston Mercantile Journal, off the harbor of Hy-alled the Gangway rock, with only five feet water, with a buoy on it. To the d of the Gangway, lies a reef, with several shoal rocks upon it, that have not more en feet water upon them. One of the rocks was lately struck by the barque Mo-nd the captain supposed it was the Gangway rock, and the buoy was out of place. *n that an examination has* been made, and the Gangway rock, with the buoy on *und, agreeing with the former* land-marks.

LIGHTS ON THE TORINGEN AND SANDVIGSODDE.

The following notice to navigators, respecting the lighting up of the lights on Toringen and Sandvigsodde, near Arendal, are published over the signature of Libbern of the Royal Norway Government, Sea Department, at Christiana, August 13, 1844, and now republished in the Merchants' Magazine, for the information of mariners:—

"Referring to the notice of the marine department, under date of May 17, of the present year, it has now been notified that two lights are erected on the Toringen, near Arendal, which will, in the evening of 1st September, for the first time, be lighted. Both are fixed lights, which throw a glare all round, and are situated on the islands store (great) and lille (little) Toringen, 1,800 feet from one another, in N. 4 W. by corrected compass. The one on store Toringen is in 53. 23. 15. N. lat., 8. 53. 15. E. lon. of Greenwich; and the other on little Toringen, in 58. 25. N. lat., 8. 53. E. lon. of Greenwich. Both lights will burn 130 feet above the level of the sea; and, under ordinary circumstances, be visible at four and a half to five sea miles distance. In order to serve as day-marks, the light-towers are painted white.

"There will also be lighted, in the evening of the 1st of September of the present year, on the Sandvigsodde, near the entry of Arendal, a fixed light, in 58. 25. 30. N. lat., 8. 52. 10. E. lon. of Greenwich, 42 feet above the level of the sea, and will throw a light from N. N. W. through N. E. and S. to S. W., (all by corrected compass,) over every part which is not obscured by the land; and, under usual circumstances, the light will be visible at a distance of two and a half to three sea miles. In order to serve as a land-mark, the light-house is painted light yellow.

"Those three lights will burn throughout the whole year, and be lighted up from Easter to Michaelmas one hour, and from Michaelmas to Easter half an hour after sunset, and burn till sunrise.

"With the assistance of those lights, a ship may enter without a pilot both ways into Sandvig, half a league from Arendal, viz: when at the distance of at least half a sea mile from the shore, the light of Sanvigsodde land point bears N. 16 W. by corrected compass, (N. ¼ E. by uncorrected,) or a sail's breadth E. off the light of lille Toringen, steering in that direction along the shore E. round lille Toringen, straight for the light of Sandvigsodde; the distance from lille Toringen to Sandvigsodde being one-quarter of a sea-mile. When within a cable's length of the Sandvigsodde light, the course is east; in order to keep the same for some time farther, ¼ cable's length at the same distance till quite opposite it, when the course is to be altered to N. 2 deg. W. by corrected (N. N. E. by uncorrected) compass, for one to three cable's length, by which the ship will safely arrive at an anchorage place, with twelve to sixteen fathoms water, and good anchorage ground. 2. Coming from sea, a ship may run in between the two Toringen, but so near store Toringen, as to remain only a small cable's length off the island till the light of Sandvigsodde appears N. 2 deg. W. according to corrected (N. N. E. by uncorrected) compass, when the course is straight for the last mentioned light; being one-quarter cable's length off the same, and the same course is to be held as above described. The first mentioned entrance is, however, the easiest for foreigners to enter."

LIGHTING OF THE LIGHTS ON UDSIRE.

The following notice, relating to the lighting of the lights of Udsire, dated "Admiralty, August 8, 1844," and signed "Libbern, Norwegian Royal Department, Christiana, July 13, 1844," is republished for the benefit of mariners:—

"In connection with the notice issued by the department on the 17th of May last, it is hereby made known that the two new lights erected on the island of Udsire, will be lighted on the evening of the 15th August next. These two lights, which are to be fixed, and to be seen from every side, are situated 330 ells (680 English feet) from each other, 68 deg. E. of S., and 68 deg. W. of N., by true compass. The lights will burn the year round, and will be lighted from Easter to Michaelmas an hour after sunset, and from Michaelmas to Easter half an hour after sunset, and continue burning till sunrise. The elevation of the light above the level of the sea is 248 Norwegian feet, equal to 264 English. In order that they may serve as beacons during the day, the towers or light-houses are painted of a light red color. The latitude of the easternmost light is 59. 11. 18. N., and longitude 4. 53. 36. E. of Greenwich. The westernmost light is 59. 18. 20. N. lat., and lon. 4. 53. 24. E. of Greenwich. These lights, it is supposed, will be seen, in ordinary weather, at a distance of from 18 to 20 miles.

LIGHT-HOUSE ON THE ISLAND OF BANGOE.

The light on the island of Bangoe, between Asseus and Awesund, established for the guidance of the packets crossing the Little Belt, which had hitherto lit up the passage only south of that island, will, within the present summer, be raised five feet higher, in a lantern at the top of the light-house. The light will thereby become visible from all sides, except in the direction of about N. E. by E., in which direction it would be concealed a short way, by the town of Bangoe. During the progress of the work connected with this contemplated change, which will prevent the original light being shown for a time, light will be afforded by a large lantern with reflectors, which will be fixed at the same height, and will light in the same direction as the red lights.

In the course of the month of August of this year, two beacons will be laid down at the Lyse-ground in the Cattegat, N. E. of the island of Hesseloe, viz:—One beacon with two brooms at the top, at the N. E. end of the aforesaid ground, in 4¼ fathoms water; and, by bearings, Hesseloe light-house S. W. ¼ S., and the Koll E. S. E. ¼ E. One beacon, with one broom at the top, at the N. W. end of the ground, in 4½ fathoms water; and, by bearings, Hesseloe light-house S. W. by S., and the Koll E. by S. The beacons will remain exposed throughout the year. S. HERBERT.

General Board of Customs and Trade, July 12, 1844.

FLOATING LIGHT MOORED OFF FALSTERBO.

The following information, respecting the establishment of a floating light, moored off Falsterbo, has been communicated to the department of state, at Washington, by the Charge-d'Affaires of Sweden and Norway, and is published officially, for the information of those trading in that quarter:—

"The Royal Department of Maritime Affairs of Sweden, gives notice that a floating light was moored off Falsterbo in the month of September last. The light vessel has two masts, her sides painted red, with the letters F. S. in white paint on each side, carries a red streamer on the foremast, and shows two lights during the night, so placed that, when approaching her from either side, they are seen side by side; or, when a vessel nears her in a line with her bows, they are seen one above the other, the highest light being on the foretop.

"The floating light-vessel will be lighted up from the 15th March to the 1st of December, every year. She lays in 6½ fathoms water, one minute from the outermost point of Falsterbo reef, and whence Falsterbo light bears N. E., six minutes distant; and Stevensklint's light-house bears W. N. W. ½ W. by compass. A bell will be tolled on board the floating light during thick and misty weather. The lights are about 50 feet above the level of the water, and may be seen two German miles, or more, in fair weather.

"The floating light will have five pilots stationed on board, and lays in such deep water that the largest ship may approach her, and obtain a pilot. She will carry a pilot-flag as long as pilots are on board; and the flag will be taken down when they are all out."

NEW INVENTION FOR SAILING SHIPS.

Mr. H. Demster, of Kinghorn, has invented a "new rig," the advantages of which he states are as follows:—The Problem, a vessel which he has constructed, is capable of being made to turn round, as if on a pivot, without even a sail being altered—attention to shifting of the helm when she takes a stern-way, being all that is necessary to perform the evolution. The vessel can with ease be propelled stern foremost, and tacked or wore in that direction. The fore and aft triangle sails go round without touching a mast. It is in these sails where the principal advantage rests in the rig. Under them, a vessel properly managed will never miss stays in the heaviest sea, or in the highest wind. They are well constructed for lying to, backing, filling, or box-hauling; and it is his opinion that these *two sails may be applied* to the largest-sized fishing boats, particularly those that, *from their size, are incapable of* being rowed, but are obliged to set and haul their lines *under sail.*

PASSAGE OF THE DARDANELLES.

The Department of State, at Washington, under date of Sept. 20, 1844, publishes officially, in the Madisonian, the following translation of a new regulation in relation to the passage of the Dardanelles, recently received from the minister resident of the United States at Constantinople, for the information of those trading in that quarter:—

When vessels endeavor to pass the Dardanelles after 11 o'clock, (6 o'clock 15 minutes,) 6, M., our unshotted gun is fired, for the purpose of bringing her to; and when this proves ineffectual, the second is fired, charged with a ball. This is in execution of an ancient custom; but, as every one knows that the guns are not fired with the intention of striking the vessel, it is useless. Besides this, a quantity of powder and ball is wasted; to obviate which, the following regulation has been determined on, viz:—

When vessels attempt to pass the Dardanelles after the aforementioned hour, red, green and yellow flags will be displayed before the guard-houses, and at night large lights will be hung out in front of them; and if no notice is taken of these, then a cannon will be fired, and the expense of the same, be the vessel whatever it may, be charged to it.

This regulation has been notified to His Excellency the Pacha, governor of the castles of the Dardanelles, as well as to the other necessary authorities; the same to commence at the expiration of the said term, (one month,) and the present official note is now written and sent to your excellency, with the particular request that you will be so good as to have the regulation also made known to the captains of the merchant vessels of the American government, and take such necessary steps as will require them to act in conformance to it. [A correct translation.]

July 7, 1844. (Signed) J. P. Brown.

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

UNITED STATES EXPORT OF AGRICULTURAL PRODUCE,

FOR THE LAST SIXTEEN YEARS.

The tabular statements below, exhibit the amount and value of agricultural produce, embracing wheat, flour, Indian corn, Indian and rye meal, rye, oats, &c.; ship-bread, potatoes, rice, cotton, and tobacco, exported from the United States for the last sixteen years —i. e., from 1828 to 1843. The exports for 1843, in consequence of the change of the commercial year, includes only the nine months ending 30th of June, 1843. The previous years, (from 1828 to 1842, inclusive,) are complete years, and end on the 30th of September.

Export of Wheat, Flour, and Indian Corn.

Years.	Wheat. Quantity. *Bush.*	Wheat. Value. *Dolls.*	Flour. Quantity. *Bbls.*	Flour. Value. *Dolls.*	Indian Corn. Quantity. *Bush.*	Indian Corn. Value. *Dolls.*
1828,	8,906	6,730	860,809	4,286,939	704,902	342,894
1829,	4,007	6,372	837,385	5,793,651	897,656	478,868
1830,	45,289	46,176	1,227,434	6,085,953	444,107	224,823
1831,	408,910	523,270	1,806,529	9,938,458	571,312	396,617
1832,	88,304	93,500	864,919	4,880,623	451,230	278,749
1833,	32,221	29,592	955,768	5,613,010	487,174	337,505
1834,	36,948	39,598	835,352	4,520,781	303,449	203,573
1835,	47,762	51,405	779,396	4,394,777	755,781	588,276
1836,	2,062	2,062	505,400	3,572,599	124,791	103,702
1837,	17,303	27,206	318,719	2,987,269	151,276	147,969
1838,	6,291	8,125	448,161	3,603,299	172,321	141,998
1839,	96,325	144,191	923,151	6,925,170	162,306	141,095
1840,	1,720,860	1,635,483	1,897,501	10,143,615	474,279	338,333
1841,	868,585	822,881	1,515,817	7,759,646	535,727	312,954
1842,	817,958	916,616	1,283,602	7,375,356	600,308	345,150
1843,	311,685	264,109	841,474	3,763,973	479,508	281,749

EXPORT OF INDIAN AND RYE MEAL, RYE, OATS, &c.

	Indian Meal.		Rye Meal.		Rye, Oats, &c.
	Quantity. *Bbls.*	Value. *Dolls.*	Quantity. *Bbls.*	Value. *Dolls.*	Value. *Dolls.*
....	174,639	480,034	22,214	59,036	67,997
....	173,775	495,673	34,191	127,004	74,896
....	145,301	372,296	26,298	87,796	66,249
....	207,604	595,434	19,100	71,881	132,717
....	146,710	480,085	17,254	75,392	78,447
....	146,678	534,309	36,038	140,017	102,568
....	149,609	491,910	39,151	140,306	49,465
....	166,782	629,389	30,854	129,140	96,478
....	140,917	621,560	36,646	173,976	80,492
....	159,435	763,652	28,323	165,457	80,785
....	171,843	722,399	22,864	110,792	94,533
....	165,672	658,421	29,458	145,448	72,050
....	206,063	705,183	53,218	170,931	113,393
....	232,284	682,457	44,031	138,505	159,893
....	209,199	617,817	34,190	124,396	175,062
....	174,354	454,166	21,770	65,631	108,640

EXPORTS OF SHIP-BREAD, POTATOES, RICE, COTTON, AND TOBACCO.

	Ship-bread. *Value.*	Potatoes. *Value.*	Rice. *Value.*	Cotton. *Value.*	Tobacco. *Value.*
....	$171,105	$35,371	$2,620,696	$22,487,229	$5,269,960
....	172,897	30,079	2,514,370	26,575,341	4,982,974
....	188,474	39,027	1,986,824	29,674,883	5,586,365
....	250,533	41,147	2,016,267	25,289,492	4,892,388
....	255,735	42,077	2,152,631	31,724,682	5,999,769
....	252,555	52,052	2,744,418	36,191,105	5,755,968
....	231,708	38,567	2,122,272	49,448,402	6,595,305
....	221,699	41,543	2,210,331	64,961,302	8,250,577
....	244,760	43,630	2,548,750	71,284,925	10,058,640
....	244,292	20,594	2,309,279	63,240,102	5,795,647
....	263,686	56,898	1,721,819	61,556,811	7,392,029
....	349,871	57,536	2,460,198	61,238,982	9,832,943
....	428,988	54,524	1,942,076	63,870,307	9,883,957
....	378,041	64,402	2,010,107	54,330,341	12,576,709
....	323,759	85,844	1,907,387	47,593,464	9,540,753
....	312,232	47,757	1,625,726	49,119,806	4,650,979

EXPORTS OF DOMESTIC PRODUCE FROM THE UNITED STATES TO GREAT BRITAIN.

following tabular statement exhibits the amount and value of the articles of do-products, enumerated in the preceding tables, exported from the United States to Britain and Ireland, during the same period:—

	Wheat.		Flour.		Indian Corn.	
	Quantity. *Bush.*	Value. *Dolls.*	Quantity. *Bbls.*	Value. *Dolls.*	Quantity. *Bush.*	Value. *Dolls.*
....	.....	.....	23,258	111,871	141,971	68,433
....	4,001	6,359	221,176	1,635,174	251,564	135,196
....	32,037	33,184	326,182	1,544,194	51,416	29,425
....	381,252	492,680	879,430	4,931,951	190,469	133,447
....	55,050	62,287	95,958	479,321	322	180
....	.....	.....	22,207	121,169	3,240	2,174
....	.....	.....	19,687	96,834	.....	.....
....	.....	.....	5,376	25,341	253	230
....	.....	.....	161	1,134	.....	.....
....	3	6	.....	.....	12	15
....	.....	.....	8,295	62,510	135	110
....	6,033	11,073	167,585	1,326,600	519	467
....	615,972	685,609	620,919	3,387,343	104,841	61,569
....	119,854	129,309	208,984	1,003,465	12,548	7,138
....	*143,330*	*183,696*	208,024	1,242,787	123,665	75,901
...	.....	.....	19,436	84,815	.....	.....

RYE, OATS, AND MEAL, &c., EXPORTED FROM THE UNITED STATES TO GREAT BRITAIN.

Years.	Indian Meal. Quantity. *Bbls.*	Indian Meal. Value. *Dolls.*	Rye Meal. Quantity. *Bbls.*	Rye Meal. Value. *Dolls.*	Rye, Oats. Value. *Dolls.*
1828,.....	52	152	.....	.....	.....
1829,.....	130	395	.....	.....	1,831
1830,.....	50	145	2	9	4,500
1831,.....	17,718	30,514	44	187	41,546
1832,.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
1833,.....	610	2,312	160	658	899
1834,.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	5,884
1835,.....	.....	.....	830	3,346	2,574
1836,.....	.....	.....	100	550	29,844
1837,.....	300	1,381	.....	.....	.....
1838,.....	1	6	.....	.....	.....
1839,.....	1	3	.....	.....	1,015
1840,.....	6	21	5	20	14,842
1841,.....	6	10	.....	.....	2,178
1842,.....	2	8	.....	.....	36,490
1843,.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2,751

RICE, COTTON, TOBACCO, &c., EXPORTED FROM THE UNITED STATES TO GREAT BRITAIN.

Years.	Ship-bread. *Value.*	Potatoes. *Value.*	Rice. *Value.*	Cotton. *Value.*	Tobacco. *Value.*
1828,.....	$90	.....	$430,246	$15,626,901	$1,720,571
1829,.....	368	$17	407,863	17,514,389	1,533,115
1830,.....	.....	.....	265,479	20,678,633	1,583,971
1831,.....	494	2	553,475	20,117,355	1,888,336
1832,.....	6	.....	423,127	22,429,050	2,345,450
1833,.....	334	24	570,572	26,254,970	2,259,197
1834,.....	54	3	287,599	36,107,664	2,937,028
1835,.....	496	.....	203,916	45,701,411	3,400,639
1836,.....	375	.....	444,802	48,910,846	4,593,442
1837,.....	.....	220	319,993	44,857,118	1,879,868
1838,.....	.....	.....	221,790	45,787,687	2,857,203
1839,.....	.....	.....	423,654	46,074,579	5,404,967
1840,.....	160	10	288,439	41,945,354	3,227,880
1841,.....	506	.....	489,952	35,634,005	5,114,836
1842,.....	1,125	5	280,073	30,102,417	3,212,207
1843,.....	675	.....	149,026	35,781,107	1,262,616

During the third quarter of 1843, there was exported to Great Britain and Ireland 29,062 barrels of flour—value, $136,963.

TOTAL VALUE OF AGRICULTURAL PRODUCE EXPORTED FROM THE UNITED STATES, IN THE LAST SIXTEEN YEARS.

Years.	Agg. am't in val. of exp'ts to Gr. Britain and Ireland.	Agg. am't in val. of expt's to all other places.	Total am't in val. of exp'ts.
1828,.....	$17,958,263	$17,869,658	$35,327,921
1829,.....	21,234,207	20,017,882	41,252,089
1830,.....	24,139,540	20,219,326	44,358,866
1831,.....	28,183,987	15,964,217	44,148,204
1832,.....	25,739,421	20,322,210	46,061,631
1833,.....	29,212,309	22,540,790	51,753,099
1834,.....	39,435,058	24,446,829	63,881,887
1835,.....	49,337,883	32,237,034	81,574,917
1836,.....	53,980,994	31,754,102	85,735,096
1837,.....	47,058,601	28,723,664	75,782,265
1838,.....	48,929,306	26,743,077	75,672,383
1839,.....	53,242,358	28,783,547	82,025,905
1840,.....	49,611,187	39,675,603	89,286,790
1841,.....	42,381,397	36,854,533	79,235,930
1842,.....	35,134,709	33,870,917	69,005,626
1843,.....	37,280,990	23,412,878	60,693,868

EXPORTS OF COTTON, AND ALL OTHER PRODUCE,

FOR THE LAST TWENTY-THREE YEARS.

) subjoined table, compiled from the official reports of the treasury, for the last twen-
:e years, shows the annual value of American produce of all kinds, exported from
untry. Column 3 contains that of cotton alone; column 4 contains the aggregate
of all other kinds—of flour, rice, tobacco, hemp; of beef, pork, lard, lumber; of
oducts of the sea and the forest, the field, and the workshops.

EXPORTS OF DOMESTIC PRODUCE FROM THE UNITED STATES.

nd'g 30.	Cotton.		All other produce.	Total value of exports.
	Pounds.	*Value.*	*Value.*	
.....	124,893,405	$20,157,484	$23,514,410	$43,671,894
.....	144,675,095	24,035,058	25,839,021	49,874,079
.....	173,723,270	20,445,520	26,709,888	47,155,408
.....	142,369,663	21,947,401	28,702,099	50,649,500
.....	176,449,907	36,846,649	30,097,096	66,944,745
.....	204,535,415	26,163,339	26,892,371	53,055,710
.....	294,310,115	30,518,959	28,402,732	58,921,691
.....	210,590,463	23,497,461	27,172,208	50,669,669
.....	264,836,989	27,834,768	27,865,425	55,700,193
.....	298,458,998	30,993,066	28,468,963	59,462,029
.....	276,999,784	26,415,805	34,861,252	61,277,057
.....	322,215,122	32,954,256	30,183,214	63,137,470
.....	324,698,604	38,723,622	31,594,076	70,317,698
.....	384,717,907	51,534,396	29,489,766	81,024,162
.....	387,359,008	67,819,983	33,369,099	101,189,082
.....	423,631,302	73,540,662	33,376,018	106,916,680
.....	444,211,537	66,071,575	29,492,839	95,564,414
.....	595,952,297	65,315,574	30,718,247	96,033,821
.....	413,624,212	64,214,015	39,319,876	103,533,891
.....	743,941,061	67,419,914	46,475,720	113,895,634
.....	530,204,100	57,452,887	48,929,835	106,382,722
.....	584,717,017	50,564,154	42,405,842	92,969,996
.....	817,253,446	53,855,218	37,808,280	91,663,498
al,..	8,283,768,718	$978,321,766	$741,689,277	1,720,011,043

AGRICULTURAL PRODUCE AND CONSUMPTION

IN THE UNITED STATES, FOR THREE YEARS—1840-2-3.

: National Intelligencer publishes the following table, constructed from authentic
als, of the quantities of agricultural products grown and consumed within the Uni-
ates during the three last years:—

AGRICULTURAL PRODUCE OF THE UNITED STATES—QUANTITY PRODUCED.

cles.	1840.	1842.	1843.
,.....bush.	84,823,272	102,317,340	100,310,856
,.....	4,161,504	3,871,622	3,220,721
.....	123,071,341	150,883,617	145,929,966
.....	18,645,567	22,762,952	24,280,271
heat,.....	7,291,743	9,483,489	7,959,410
corn,.....	377,531,875	441,829,246	494,618,306
es,.....	108,298,060	135,883,381	105,756,133
.....tons	10,248,108¼	14,053,355	15,419,807
nd hemp,.....	95,251¼	158,569¼	161,007¼
co,.....lbs.	219,163,319	194,694,891	185,731,554
,.....	790,479,295	683,333,231	747,660,090
.....	80,841,422	94,007,884	89,879,145
ocoons,.....	61,552	244,124	315,965
.....	155,110,809	142,445,199	126,400,310
.....gallons	124,734	130,748	139,240
sed value of the above articles, for 1842,.....			$582,630,968
" *at the same prices, for* 1843,.....			607,185,413

CONSUMPTION OF THE PRODUCE OF THE UNITED STATES.

	1840.	1842.	1843.
Population,.....	17,069,453	18,646,367	19,183,583
Consumption.			
Indian corn,.....bush.	290,180,650	316,988,239	326,120,911
Oats,.....	95,588,920	104,419,644	107,428,048
Wheat, rye, &c.,.....	85,347,265	93,231,835	95,917,915
Potatoes,.....	85,347,265	93,231,835	95,917,915
Surplus, after deducting one-tenth for seed, and the above for consumption.			
Indian corn,.....bush.	49,598,038	80,658,083	119,035,565
Wheat, rye, &c.,.....	18,082,613	31,360,028	27,276,218
Oats,.....	15,175,287	31,375,612	23,908,928
Potatoes,.....	12,120,989	29,063,208	defic'y of 737,395

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF THE UNITED STATES,

FOR TWENTY-THREE YEARS—FROM 1821 TO 1843.

The following is a statement of the value of imports and exports into and from the United States, from 1820 to the present time, distinguishing domestic articles exported from those of foreign production. The year, in each case, ends with the 30th September, inclusive. Imports and exports for 1843, embraces only nine months—(i. e., from October 1, 1842, to June 30th, 1843.) The latter date will hereafter, as before stated, be the termination of the commercial year, instead of 30th September.

Years.	Dom. exports.	For. exports.	Tot. exports.	Tot. imports.
1821,.....	$43,671,894	$21,302,488	$64,974,382	$62,585,724
1822,.....	49,874,079	22,286,202	72,160,281	83,941,541
1823,.....	47,155,408	27,543,622	74,699,030	77,579,267
1824,.....	50,649,500	25,337,157	75,986,657	80,549,007
	$191,350,881	$96,469,469	$287,820,350	$303,955,539
1825,.....	$66,944,745	$32,590,643	$99,535,388	$96,340,075
1826,.....	53,055,710	24,539,612	77,595,322	84,974,477
1827,.....	58,921,691	23,403,136	82,324,827	79,481,068
1828,.....	50,669,669	21,595,017	72,264,686	88,509,824
	$229,591,815	$102,128,408	$334,720,223	$349,308,444
1829,.....	$55,700,193	$16,658,478	$72,358,671	$74,492,527
1830,.....	59,462,029	14,387,479	73,849,508	70,876,920
1831,.....	61,277,057	20,033,526	81,310,583	103,191,124
1832,.....	63,137,470	24,039,473	87,176,943	101,029,366
	$239,576,794	$75,118,956	$314,695,705	$349,589,837
1833,.....	$70,317,698	$19,822,735	$90,140,433	$108,118,311
1834,.....	81,024,162	23,312,811	104,336,973	126,521,332
1835,.....	101,189,082	20,504,495	121,693,577	149,895,743
1836,.....	106,916,680	21,746,360	128,663,040	189,980,035
	$359,447,622	$85,386,401	$444,834,023	$574,515,420
1837,.....	$95,564,414	$21,854,962	$117,419,376	$140,980,177
1838,.....	96,063,821	12,452,795	108,486,616	113,717,404
1839,.....	103,533,891	17,494,525	121,028,416	162,092,132
1840,.....	113,762,617	17,809,333	132,085,946	107,141,519
	$408,894,743	$69,611,615	$479,020,354	$523,931,252
1841,.....	$106,382,722	$15,469,081	$121,851,803	$127,946,177
1842,.....	92,969,996	11,721,538	104,691,534	100,162,087
1843,.....	77,793,783	6,552,697	84,346,480	64,753,790

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

COMMERCE OF THE PRAIRIES; OR, THE SANTA FE TRADE.

The interesting work of Mr. Gregg, on this subject, has furnished us with materials for an article on the commerce of the prairies, which we have been compelled to defer to a future number of this Magazine. In the meantime, we give below some more recent particulars of this trade, furnished partly by the St. Louis Republican, and partly by a new paper recently established at Independence, Missouri. The editor of the Independence Journal, says he has been at some pains to collect information in regard to the Santa Fe Trade, and he estimates the exports at $400,000 dollars in specie, and buffalo robes, furs, &c., to the amount of $50,000 more. Several of the companies which came in last spring, have not returned, in consequence of the unfavorable state of the weather. For this reason, the exports are much less this year than usual. Four companies went out this year, taking with them merchandise to the value, at eastern cost, of $200,000—the insurance, freight to that point, outfits, &c., cost another $100,000; making the whole sum invested in this trade $300,000, which would have been increased to $500,000, but for the bad weather. In the four companies, there were 160 men, and the outfit for them is stated as follows:—

780 mules, worth each $25,.....	$27,300
60 oxen, " 30,.....	1,800
5,000 lbs. bacon, at 3½ cts.,.....	182
30 bbls. flour, at $5,.....	120
90 bushels meal, 30 cents,.....	27
Merchandise, outfit for hands,.....	3,500
Harness for teams,.....	2,500
Blacksmiths' work,.....	500
Making, altogether, the sum of.....	$35,959

exclusive of wagons, wagon sheets, and many other articles purchased at that place. The number of wagons was 92, each costing $180, many of which were made there; and the total number of wagon sheets was 1,200, including blankets to put between them.

The trade with Santa Fe is thus made to amount to $750,000; but even this sum is said to be considerably short of what it is in ordinary seasons. The Independence editor insists that the trade should no longer be neglected by the government. "Give us a port of entry; give us the right of drawbacks, and our traders will supply the whole of the provinces of Santa Fe, Chihuahua, Sonora, California, and others, instead of being supplied with British goods through Metamoras, Vera Cruz, and other ports. Instead of the trade being worth half a million of dollars, it will reach to four or five millions." The east is said to be deeply interested in this trade, as furnishing an outlet for their calicoes and domestics—Missouri is interested; and the editor hopes that Congress will act upon this matter next winter, and give to our traders all the benefits which those of other nations enjoy.

The wagon-makers of Independence have orders to build seventy-five wagons for the Santa Fe trade, by next spring—only fifty were made the past spring. Several new mercantile establishments have just been located there, and all are doing well. A turnpike-road from Independence to Wayne city, on the river, will be completed as rapidly as possible. All that is wanted to make Independence one of the most important towns in Missouri, is to make it a port of entry, and for the legislature to establish a branch of the bank *at that place, to accommodate* the traders, and the commerce of the western part of *the state.*

THE POETRY OF COMMERCE.

THE EMIGRANT SHIP.

Her anchor is heaved, her sails unfurled—from her prow the cleft waves flee,
And she speeds her way to the western world, o'er the bounding Atlantic sea.
She is freighted with treasure, more priceless, far, than gold or diamonds rare;
Her decks are crowded with life and breath, and hearts and hopes are there.
Hearts which, ere long, may be crushed—and hopes to be quenched in despair's deep gloom,
For the land of promise may only yield to the seeker a lonely tomb.
There are smiles—bright smiles, on the young child's face, as it gazes on sea and sky;
But stern sad thought on the father's brow, and tears in the mother's eye.
The boy is dreaming of ancient woods, of waters so crystal clear,
They seem amid verdurous solitudes, like a liquid atmosphere.
And will they e'er homeward turn once more, those pilgrims upon the wave,
Or where dark pines wave, and cataracts roar, find rest in a foreign grave?
A few *may* behold the homes of youth, but more shall in dust repose,
And find relief in a stranger land, from life and its countless woes.
Within the shade of the English tower, mother and sire may dwell,
And rolling waves divide their graves from the children's they loved so well.
What wonder, then, as we voyage on, and billows fond hearts dissever,
They seem to shriek in each startled ear, "Thou hast quitted thy land forever!"
But a truce to grief—as our white-winged bark speeds o'er the waters blue,
Though we sigh for the old world left behind, we'll hope on as we seek the new. J. E. D.

COMMERCE, MANUFACTURES, AND AGRICULTURE.

Manufacturers and merchants are to the body politic what the digestive powers are to the human body. We could not exist without food; but the largest supplies of food cannot lengthen our days when the machinery by which nature prepares and adapts it for our use, and incorporates it with our body, is vitiated and deranged. Nothing, therefore, can be more silly and childish than the estimates so frequently put forth of the comparative advantages of agricultural, manufacturing, and commercial industry. They are all intimately connected, and depend upon, and grow out of, each other. "Land and trade," to borrow the just and forcible expressions of Sir Josiah Child, "are twins; and have always, and ever will, wax and wane together. It cannot be ill with trade, but lands will fall; nor ill with lands, but trade will fall." These reasonings cannot be controverted; and on its authority we are entitled to condemn every attempt to exalt one species of industry by giving it fictitious advantages at the expense of the rest, as being alike impolitic and pernicious. No preference can be given to agriculturalists over manufacturers and merchants, or to the latter over the former, without occasioning the most extensively ruinous consequences.

NEW TRAFFIC WITH AFRICA.

Several vessels have left Liverpool for the Western coast of Africa, with sealed instructions, to be opened in a certain latitude; and each carrying an experienced practical chemist, furnished with tests for ascertaining the real qualities and composition of ores and salts. The destination of these vessels, probably the pioneers of a new traffic, is understood to lie between the 20th and 30th degree of latitude on the Western coast; and their object, the discovery of certain suspected veins of copper, lead, iron, or gold, stated to exist about forty miles from the sea-coast, and in a rich and fertile country.

BREACH OF TRUST IN MERCHANTS' CLERKS.

Two cases of breach of trust recently came to light in Pittsburgh, which we record in the pages of this Magazine, in the hope that they may serve as a warning to the rising generation of American merchants, who may be tempted to make shipwreck of that integrity which, if it does not always promote success in commercial transactions, imparts to its possessor what is of far higher value and importance—a peaceful conscience; the only source of true happiness.

One of the cases alluded to is that of a young married man, formerly a partner in a house which failed there. He was entrusted with $10,000, and instructions to buy pig metal on the Cumberland river. Unfortunately, after purchasing, and paying $1,000, he fell into the company of gamblers, and lost $3,000; then, in hopes of recovering, followed them to another place, and again played, and lost $3,000 more. Finally, he went to St. Louis with the balance, leaving his employer minus $9,000. The other case is that of a young man unmarried, who was entrusted with some $4,000 or $5,000, by a kind-hearted friend, who wished him well, and did it, partially at least, to promote his individual interest. His father is a respectable man, in very easy circumstances. The son had an excellent prospect of getting into business, aided by the capital of his father and friend, alluded to above; but, for the sake of having possession of some $5,000, twice the amount of which he might have made in a few years, in a legitimate trade, with honor to himself, he absconded, ruining his prospects in life, and plunging a parent into the deepest distress.

A PARAGRAPH OF COMMERCE.

TRANSLATED FROM THE GERMAN OF FREDERIKA BREMER.

Long life to commerce! My soul expands at the sight of its life. What has not commerce done from the beginning of the world for the embellishment of life, or promoting the friendly intercourse of countries and people, for the refinement of manners! It has always given me the most heartfelt delight, that the wisest and most humane of the law-givers of antiquity (Solon) was a merchant. "By trade," says one of his biographers, "by wisdom, and music, was his soul fashioned. Long life to commerce! What lives not through it?" What is all fresh life, all movement, in reality, but trade, exchange, gift for gift! In love, in friendship, in the great life of the people, in the quiet family circle, everywhere where I see happiness and prosperity, see I also trade. Nay, what is the whole earth, if not a colony from the mother country of heaven, and whose well-being and happy condition depend upon free export and import! The simile might be still further carried out; yet, thou good Giver above, pardon us that we have ventured upon it!

FIRST SALE OF AMERICAN HAY AT LIVERPOOL.

We copy from Gores' Advertiser the following paragraph, for the purpose of placing upon record the first importation of American Hay into Great Britain.

On Monday, the 16th Sept. 1844, 192 bales of American Hay, brought by the New York, and 40 bales, brought by the Concordia, were put up at auction, at the north end of the Waterloo Dock. As this was the first importation of American Hay to England, the sale attracted an immense crowd. We understand that, in the absence of a more lucrative description of freight, it was brought over by the owners of the respective vessels mentioned, in the way of speculation, and as a sort of feeler. It is not what would be considered the best, or any thing like the best hay in England. It is the coarsest we have ever seen, portions of it resembling straw, or the strong, tough sprouts which grow on the margins of water-pools. Nevertheless the bids were higher, at all events as high, as could have been expected. The auctioneer on the occasion was Mr. J. H. Rayner. The lots, for the most part, consisted of eight or ten bales each, and were knocked down at prices ranging from 7¼*d.* to 7¾*d.* per stone. One lot of twelve bales fetched 8*d.*, and *this was the highest bid of the day.* The sale was briskly conducted, and was all over in *the course of an hour.*

AFRICAN GUANO TRADE.

As this novel branch of commerce is exciting considerable interest among a portion of the mercantile classes, we have deemed it of sufficient importance to collect and lay before our readers from time to time such statements bearing upon the subject as we considered authentic and reliable. A late number of the London Shipping List contains the following letter, dated Ichaboe, June 20th, 1844:—

"We arrived here on the 16th from Augra Pequena, where we lay three days, during which I examined that Island and the bays thereabout, but could find no Guano worth loading. There is plenty of excellent Guano here, but it is a wild place, and difficult to load on account of the heavy sea that rolls in from the S. W. and S. S. W. It is a most miserable place for a ship in winter. We have commenced loading, and, if the weather keep fine, expect to be loaded in about a month; but if the weather be rough, it is impossible to say when we shall be loaded. There are about 45 English and one American vessel loading here, several of them from 500 to 600 tons register. About a fifth part of the Guano has been shipped off the Island; but what is left will last from 12 to 15 months, at the present rate of shipment, as the Island is one mass of Guano, about 50 feet thick in the centre, declining toward the water's edge; it is nearly half a mile long, and about a quarter broad."

Two cargoes of Guano, the last arrival at Liverpool, sold at £6 5s. About 100 tons, brought £6 2s. 6d. to £6 5s. For delivery the first three months of next year, several cargoes have been sold at £6 to £6 2s. 6d.

We find the following paragraph in Burke's account of the European settlements in America, (Burke's works, Little & Brown's edition, vol. 9, p. 176,) which apparently refers to one of the Guano Islands:

"The district which produces this pepper in such abundance, is small but naturally barren; its fertility in pepper, as well as in grain and fruits, is owing to the advantages of a species of a very extraordinary manure, brought from the Island called Iquiqua. This is a sort of yellowish earth of a fetid smell. It is generally thought to be the dung of birds because of the similitude of the scent, feathers having been found very deep in it, and vast numbers of sea fowls appearing upon that and all the adjacent coasts. But on the other hand, whether we look upon this substance as the dung of these sea fowls, or a particular species of earth, it is almost equally difficult to conceive how the small island of Iquiqua, not above two miles in circumference, could supply such immense quantities, and yet after supplying upwards of twelve ship loads annually for a century together, for the distant parts, and a vastly larger quantity for the use of the neighborhood, it cannot be observed that it is in the least diminished, or that the height of the island is at all lessened."

In regard to the origin of the name "Guano," as applied to this manure, a learned correspondent of one of the religious magazines suggests that, as "there is nothing new under the sun," it was this manure which in the following passage, (2d Kings, vi. 25) is mentioned as having been sold in Samaria, at a time of scarcity, at an enormous rate:

"And there was a great famine in Samaria; and, behold, they besieged it, until an ass's head was sold for four pieces of silver, and the fourth part of a cab of doves' dung for five pieces of silver."

A more careful consideration of this verse must convince the critic that doves' dung was not to be employed as manure for the rearing of a future crop, in a besieged place, in which there was then a pinching famine. To us, there appears no doubt that the doves' dung, like the other unsavory articles classed in a category with it, was to be employed somehow as an article of food—probably for the sake of the undigested grain which it commonly contains, as it is well known that what grain the birds swallow whole is usually passed whole. Indeed, it will be remembered that during a grievous famine in India, comparatively recent, the people were represented as reduced to picking the grains of rice from ordure. The etymology of Guano might perhaps suggest curious matter for speculation to those having a taste for such inquiries. The words "Geyona," in Hebrew, *signify* Dove-valley, and the manure is certainly found in deep pits lying between *declivities.*

GOLD COIN—COUNTERFEIT SOVEREIGNS.

R. B. Bates, Esq., of Poultry, London, (Eng.,) has communicated to the government of the United States, through Lieutenant M. F. Maury, U. S. N., Hydrographical Office, Washington city, the following particulars relative to counterfeit sovereigns, which have made their appearance in England. It is supposed, by Mr. Bates, that this false coin must be principally intended for circulation on the European continent, or rather in the United States, (on account of the large quantity of sovereigns known to be in circulation in this country,) because, although the state of the coin indicates some degree of wear, there has not yet been any passed through the Bank of England; issuers being, without doubt, aware of the rigid scrutiny now exercised there. Mr. Bates says—"The officers of the British mint brought me a false sovereign to examine, and report its specific gravity. We found it to be 1,3. 58., (with reference to distilled water as Unity, at 62 Fr.,) which is about half the value of standard gold. The imitation of the coin is so perfect, as to have deceived the die-sinker himself; and its execution, altogether, is of such a quality as to excite the most intense interest and anxiety in all who have seen it. The impression of the sovereign imitated is that of Queen Victoria, and is so exquisitely done, as to defy detection by comparison, except in two or three very minute instances; the most obvious of which is the difference in the dotting of the ground or field "or," in that quarter of the shield containing the single lion. With the aid of a magnifying glass, the dots on the ground of the false coin will be found to be more distinct, being crossed, or further asunder than in the real coin. The specimen Mr. Bates saw was gilt, of course, the color of fine gold; but, on being cut, it shows the redness arising from the alloy of copper.

BANK OF JONES, LOYD & CO., MANCHESTER.

It is stated in the Bath (Eng.) Chronicle, that Samuel and William Jones, the founders of the house in Manchester, were originally tea-dealers—worthy and excellent men. From discounting bills, according to the cash received in their business, they became bankers, without any large capital; probably, and according to general belief, with not more than £20,000 in the beginning. They did not issue notes payable on demand, because that was against the taste of the community; but everybody knows that they were very large issuers of small bills, at two or three months after date, drawn upon their own house in London—bills, in fact, as the common phrase is, of "pig upon bacon." And these issues were in discount of other bills, or in the shape of advances upon other securities, convertible within a definite period. By this system of credit dealing, the eminent firm of Jones, Loyd & Co. have now come to be possessed, upon a moderate calculation, according to the general opinion of the day, of wealth equal to three or four millions sterling. Mr. Samuel Jones Loyd, however, already the possessor of no inconsiderable proportion, and the sole absolute heir of all this enormous wealth, is precisely one of the most leading men in the crusade against the free dealing in credit, by which his own, and the countless riches of his family, have been fabricated. The original Joneses—worthy men, we repeat—have died, leaving Mr. Samuel Jones Loyd sole heir to their large fortunes, as he is to the measureless hoards of his father. The capitalist of millions thus created out of credit, would, however, kick down the ladder by which he and his arrived at their present position.

Book-keeping.—We are requested to state that J. W. Wright, Accountant, and Author of English Grammar, &c. &c., will open his Evening School on the 4th of November, 1844. His system of Book-keeping embraces all possible cases of partnerships and their dissolutions. *His system of* Grammar includes style and composition, &c.

THE WOOL OF THE ALPACA.

Probably few ladies who wear and admire the beautiful fabric called Alpaca, are aware of the source of its production. The Alpaca is a wool-bearing animal, indigenous to South America, and is one of four varieties which bear general points of resemblance to each other. The Lama, one of these varieties, has been long known and often described; but it is only within a few years that the Alpaca has been considered of sufficient importance to merit particular notice. Nine-tenths of the wool of the Alpaca is black, the remainder being partly white, red and grizzled. It is of a very long staple, often reaching twelve inches, and resembles soft glossy hair—which character, is not lost in dyeing. The Indians in the South American mountains, manufacture nearly all their clothing from this wool, and are enabled to appear in black dresses, without the aid of a dyer. Both the Lama and Alpaca are, perhaps, even of more value to the natives as beasts of burden than wool-bearing animals, and their obstinacy, when irritated, is well known. The importance of this animal has already been considered by the English, in their hat, woolen and stuff trade, and an essay on this subject has been published by Dr. Hamilton, of London, from which some of these details are collected. The wool is so remarkable, being a jet black, glossy, silk-like hair, that it is fitted for the production of texile fabrics differing from all others, occupying a medium position between the wool and silk. It is now mingled with other materials in such a singular manner, that while a particular dye will affect those, it will leave the Alpaca wool with its original black color, thus giving rise to great diversity.

AMERICAN PROVISIONS IN ENGLAND.

The London Trade Report, of September 18th, gives an account of the sale of American provisions which took place at the warehouse of Messrs. Keeling & Hunt, Pudding Lane, London, on the 12th September, 1844. "The sale consisted of hams, pork, selected for the country trade, ox-tongues, smoked beef, family beef, and sausages, the whole of them imported into England, and sold duty paid, for the purpose of ascertaining whether it were possible to bring this description of food into competition with home produce. The business of the day commenced with putting up 975 hams, from New York, of fair average quality, equalling what is generally found at cook-shops in London. These produced about 42*s.* per cwt.; a further quantity of 3,025 hams, from the same place, sold for 37*s.* The pork, which was a remarkably good article, not too salt, and apparently well fed, fetched 30*s.* per cwt.; whilst 100 kegs of ox-tongues, which were remarkably good and well flavored, and equal to anything that could be obtained in London, produced at the rate of 1*s.* 11*d.* to 2*s.* each. The smoked beef, very fair, sold for 39*s.* per cwt., and 150 half-barrels of family beef, apparently well fed and sound meat, but rather too highly salted to please the majority of English eaters, found ready purchasers at 40*s.* per cwt.; the sausages fetched 9*d.* per lb.; the undressed turtle, 5*s.* per lb. The quality of the provisions exposed at this sale was very superior to anything heretofore produced from abroad. Indeed, the improvements made in the art of curing were the general subject of remark."

Mr. Lyford, of the Baltimore Commercial Journal, says that the first exports, after the modification of the British tariff, were made from that city. The following is an extract from a circular received by Mr. Lyford, by a late steamer, from Mr. James M'Henry, a distinguished provision dealer in Liverpool, with whom some of the Baltimore packers have transactions, and is dated September 3d, 1844:—

"Since the first imports of American provisions, the trade has made rapid progress We commence a new season with more settled prospects than we could, at the same period last year, have anticipated. The supplying ship-stores has passed entirely from the hands of the Irish, and is now enjoyed almost exclusively by the Americans. The strong

prejudice against American beef and pork has disappeared; and these articles, which, during the elections, three years since, were exhibited on poles through the streets, as a disgusting spectacle, now command a sale which will shortly reach 30,000 tierces per annum. This gratifying and unexpected result has arisen from the favorable reports made by masters of ships, on return from long voyages, and from the perseverance of shippers, in the face of disastrous sales, and their facility in adapting their cure and packing to the wants of their new customers. The singular variety of the exports that have been thrown on the market with such astonishing rapidity, are sources of continual wonder to our English friends; and, if some of these adventures have turned out unprofitably, others have at once commanded favor; whilst a large portion will, no doubt, come into greater consumption, when their merits are more generally known. American hams have had to struggle against a high duty, and competition with the excellent home-make, and the celebrated Westphalia, which are of such good repute even in America. The sales have not, therefore, been extensive; but we have one or two parcels now here, that are destined to make their way into favor."

AN EXAMPLE OF MERCANTILE INTEGRITY.

We have occasionally recorded in the pages of this Magazine instances of commercial integrity on the part of bankrupt merchants, alike honorable to that class of community and human nature; but we do not recollect of an example of the kind more worthy of imitation, than that described in the paragraph below, which we copy from the Boston Courier. Its influence must prove more effective than a hundred lectures on the morals of trade, though emenating from "thoughts that breathe and words that burn."

A failure happened in Boston yesterday to a large amount—unexpected probably, unless to a very few. The annunciation of the fact produced, generally, such indications of sympathy and regret as we seldom witness on similar occasions. The gentleman who is at the head of the establishment has long been known and esteemed as one of the most open, generous, upright merchants in the community. When such men fail, society suffers. But the gentleman to whom we allude does not fail. He may suffer a transient eclipse, in consequence of embarrassments in trade; but he has a capital in his character, which will carry him triumphantly through the storm. We believe in his integrity—we know the generosity of his disposition, and the nobleness of his soul—and we trust in the sympathies of an intelligent and generous community to sustain and console him in this day of misfortune, and to encourage him in any attempt he may make to recover the independence and the affluence he deserves.

This paragraph was published in the Courier of March 18, 1842. We republish it as a text, which needs no other comment than the following statement:

The assignee in bankruptcy of the estate of the late firm of James Read and Company, having completed the liquidation of said estate, has notified the creditors that he shall this day pay a final dividend. The amount which this firm owed at the time of its failure in the spring of 1842, was about $850,000. The sales and collections made by Mr. Morey, the assignee, have produced in cash nearly $800,000, by which he is enabled to pay the debts proved, within an amount somewhat over $50,000. Such a result as this has rarely happened in the settlement of a bankrupt estate. Both partners received, sometime since, a full and honorable discharge, and we now learn that the active partner, Mr. James Read, has added to what has thus been realized from the assets of the concern a sum exceeding FIFTY THOUSAND DOLLARS, being the earnings of a prosperous commission business during the past two and a half years, by means whereof every creditor of said firm will receive a hundred cents on a dollar of the amount of his debt, as proved by him against said estate, and allowed by the court.

When we consider the great amount of the debts of said firm, and of the cash realized from the assets, being nearly $800,000, and also the large sum now voluntarily furnished by Mr. Read, being the whole of his subsequent earnings, acquired, too, by intense application to business; and when also, we consider the extraordinary success of his efforts in accumulating so large a sum since the date of his misfortunes, and his willingness now, a second time, to dispossess himself entirely of property, for so honorable a purpose, we must pronounce this a case *almost* without a parallel in the history of this, or any other *mercantile community.*

LAKE SUPERIOR COPPER COMPANY.

The region bordering on Lake Superior abounds in various kinds of mineral wealth; but it is only recently that any systematic efforts have been made to develop its hidden treasures. A large tract of country, it is stated in the Detroit Advertiser, embracing the mineral district, was purchased by our government from the Indians in 1842; and the government at once adopted the policy, (and we think it was a wise one,) of granting leases to practical miners, of such portions as they should select for their mining operations. That tract thus selected, is termed a location, and embraces three miles square, or nine square miles of land; and the proprietor of the lease enjoys the exclusive possession of it for nine years, upon paying to the government 6 per cent of the mineral, by way of rent. The company above named was formed last winter, and the stock is owned by gentlemen in Boston, Washington, St. Louis, and Detroit. They have obtained leases for fifteen such locations, said to be well selected, and rich in copper ore, and are now actively engaged in prosecuting their business. Their head-quarters are at Eagle Harbor, on Point Keweenan. About twenty Cornish miners, under the superintendence of C. A. Gratiot, of Mineral Point, are now digging the ore; but the company do not intend commencing the smelting process until next spring. Mr. C. C. Douglass, late assistant to Dr. Houghton, has been engaged by the company as their geologist.

AMERICAN CHEESE IN ENGLAND.

At a recent meeting of the South Derbyshire (England) Agricultural Society, Mr. Colville, M. P., who filled the chair, drew the attention of the farmers to the import of American cheese, for the purpose of calming their fears. He showed that, although the import of American cheese had considerably increased, it had driven the Dutch cheese out of the market. He produced a table which showed, that from 1831 to 1840, the importation from America had fluctuated, without any regularity, between nothing and 50 hundred weight; from Holland or Belgium the importation had increased, in the same period, from 133,397 hundred weight to 224,957 hundred weight; from other European countries the supply had remained insignificant and nearly stationary—1,049 in 1831, 1,464 in 1840; the aggregate importations advanced from 134,459 in 1831 to 226,462 in 1840. The last figures of the table we take as they stand: they show the imports of cheese, in hundredweights, from the places named for the last three years.

Year.	America.	Europe.	Total.
1841.....	15,154	254,995	270,149
1842.....	14,098	165,614	179,749
1843.....	42,312	136,998	179,389

The importation of cheese had decreased during the last ten years by nearly 32,000 hundredweight, while the population has increased by 2,300,000 mouths.

IMPRISONMENT FOR DEBT.

In looking over an old book the other day, says the Journal of Commerce, entitled "A Memorial addressed to the Sovereigns of America, by T. Pownall, late Governor, Captain-General, Vice Admiral, &c. of the Provinces, now States, of Massachusetts Bay and South Carolina, and Lieut. Governor of New Jersey," published in London in 1783, we met with the following passages on the subject of imprisonment for debt, which, it struck us, breathed sentiments in advance of the age in which he lived.

"Imprisonment for debt is a direct solecism in policy, not relevant to the ends of distributive Justice, and contrary to every idea of the advantages which the community is supposed to derive, in some degree or other, from every individual. Imprisonment cannot pay the debt; is a punishment that makes no distinction between criminality, or the misfortune which may have occasioned the debt. The glaring injustice of this punishment hath led to two remedial Laws, the Statutes of Bankruptcy and Statutes of Insolvency, which are sources of endless frauds. The locking-up the debtor from all means of Labor or Employment, is robbing the community of the profit of that labor or employment which might be produced, is making the Debtor a burthen to his Creditor and the public. If any fraud or other criminality appears amongst the causes of the debt; or if it hath been occasioned by an undue course of living above the circumstances of the debtor; correct the vicious Follies, punish the Fraud. But taking the debtor, simply as a debtor, *pity* his misfortune; do justice, nevertheless, to the creditor."

THE BOOK TRADE.

1.—*The History of the Puritans, or Protestant Non-Conformists, from the Reformation in* 1517; *comprising an account of their Principles, their attempts for a farther Reformation in the Church, their Sufferings, and the Lives and Characters of their most considerable Divines.* By DANIEL NEAL, A. M. Reprinted from the text of Dr. Toulmin's edition, with his Life of the Author, and account of his writings. Revised, corrected, and enlarged, with additional notes. By JOHN O. CHOULES, A. M. With nine portraits on steel. In 2 vols., 8vo., pp. 534–564. New York: Harper & Brothers.

This standard work exhibits, in a clear form, the relation of the Puritans to the Established Church during the period of the important political epoch of which it treats. It is learned, full, and able; and the direct bearing which the controversies here described had upon the early colonization of New England, renders the volume of peculiar interest to the American public. We have, indeed, in these volumes, a complete ecclesiastical history of an interesting period in the English Church, when the passions of men were sharpened to the most ardent theological controversies. We here behold the points in dispute between the two great parties in that church, and the consequences which they produced, in a clear and accurate form. It is a source of satisfaction to the candid mind, that the bitterness of that day has been somewhat softened in our time, by the true spirit of Christian charity. The republication of solid and standard works, in our own country, has become, we perceive, a favorite enterprise with some of the leading publishing houses in the principal cities; and we trust that it will be encouraged by the improving taste and intelligence of the country.

2.—*The First Three Books of Homer's Iliad, with Notes, &c.* By CHARLES ANTHON, L. L. D. New York: Harper & Brothers.

This is by far the best edition ever published of that part of the Iliad usually read in the preparatory course of classical studies. The notes are very copious, and furnish a most valuable exposition of the text. Professor Anthon has added to the work the original text with the diagamma, a metrical index, and a Homeric glossary. His series of school-books is so universally known and adopted in schools, as to render unnecessary any further reference to their merit. The complimentary dedication of this work is worthily bestowed on a gentleman, who came to the city of New York literally with a shilling in his pocket; but by industry, temperance, integrity, and, in short, the practice of all those virtues which, in our republic, are sure to command success in business, and the esteem of mankind, has risen, step by step, from the printer's boy, through all the grades of the art, to the head of the first, and probably the wealthiest publishing house in the United States, and is now the Mayor of the commercial capital of the Union. We say, therefore, that this work is deservedly dedicated to Mayor Harper, "as a tribute of respect for the faithful discharge of public duties; a token of sincere regard for the many excellent qualities that adorn his private character, and a memorial of old and uninterrupted friendship, by the editor," (Dr. Anthon.)

3.—*On the Use of the Bible.* By FENELON. *With Fletcher's Illustrations. To which is appended the Celebrated Pastoral Charge of the Archbishop of Tours, on the Authority of the Church to Interpret the Scriptures.* Translated from the French, &c. New York: Casserly & Sons.

To the devout Catholic, this little volume will, no doubt, be highly acceptable at this time; and to those who are desirous of ascertaining the features that distinguish the Church of Rome from the different sects, in regard to the use of the Bible, and the authority of the Church to interpret the Scriptures, we commend this work; although, we must confess, we know of no higher authority than a clear head and a loving heart, or the divine speaking *to man through* reason, faith, conscience.

4.—*Incidents of Social Life amid the European Alps.* Translated from the German of J. Heinrich D. Zschokke. By Louis Strack. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

The delineation of European manners and sentiments, embraced in this volume, are selected from the works of Zschokke, a native of Magdeburgh, in Prussia, and now, at seventy-three years of age, a citizen of Switzerland. Several of his works have been translated, and published in London, where their popularity is said to be unbounded. The present contains four sketches. "*The Fugitive of the Jura*" reminds the reader of the beautiful poem of Montgomery, entitled "The Wanderer of Switzerland," for the Grist and the professor seem to have drawn their materials from the same source. "*Marble and Conrad*" is a very exemplary portraiture for youth; the embodiment, peradventure, in another form, of the author's own wanderings. "*Mend the Hole in your Sleeve*" is one of the most useful and attractive moral descriptions, to be found among our lighter literature. "*A Fool of the Nineteenth Century*" is an admirable satire upon the antiquated feudalism, and the aristocratic hollowness and injustice of the old European nations. In "*Hortensia,*" the author probably meant to disclose his own spiritually refined views of man in his loftier relations; and will, we predict, take rank among that complex and decorative biography, which is "history teaching by example."

5.—*Narrative of a Visit to the Syrian (Jacobite) Church of Mesopotamia; with statements and reflections upon the present state and character of Christianity in Turkey, and the character and prospects of Eastern Churches.* By the Rev. Horatio Southgate, A. M. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

That the efforts of the modern missionary have been productive of benefits to the race, there can, we think, be no manner of doubt. Aside from the promulgation of the facts of Christianity, the social amelioration that follows in its train, and the valuable information gathered by the missionary in the field of his labor, are amply sufficient to pay back to the friends of the cause all they have expended, with interest. Mr. Southgate was sent out under the auspices of the Episcopal Church in this country, for the purpose of "promoting a friendly intercourse between the branches (Eastern and Western,) of the one Catholic and Apostolic Church." How far that object has been accomplished, we will not anticipate the reader by attempting to decide; but this much we will assure him, that he will find the present volume instructive as a narrative of travel and observation among an interesting people of the great brotherhood of man, in a part of the world connected with associations in the history of the race, that will not soon cease to excite his curiosity as an enlightened christian, in the search after the materials for philosophic investigation.

6.—*The Apostles Doctrine and Fellowship. Five Sermons, preached in the principal Churches of the Diocese during his Spring Visitation,* 1844. By Rt. Rev. L. Silliman Ives, DD., LL.D., Bishop of North Carolina. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

The five discourses in this volume are published by the unanimous request of the North Carolina Episcopal Convention. The object of publishing them, as stated in Bishop Ives' reply to the committee appointed to communicate the request of the Convention, was "to protect God's truth from harm at a time of extraordinary confusion on matters of faith; a confusion growing out of unfounded and indiscriminate charges against Church Catholic doctrines, as *Romish heresy;* thus unsettling the minds of some, and threatening loss to the Church of Jesus, and to the souls for which he died." The peculiarities of the Episcopal Church are discussed and defended with the usual ability of this distinguished prelate, and his labors will doubtless be appreciated by a large portion of the members of that communion in the United States.

7.—*Old Humphrey's Country Strolls.* By the author of "Old Humphrey's Observations," "Addresses," "Homely Hints," etc. New York: Robert Carter.

Those who have read and admired the previous works of "Old Humphrey," know how to appreciate his pithy, sententious style, and the vein of practical good sense and philanthropy that run through all his writings. The present volume possesses all that individuality that inspires the reader with a desire to know the author.

8.—*The Works of the Rev. Robert Hall, A. M. With a Memoir of his Life, by Dr. Gregory; Reminiscences, by John Greene, Esq., and his Character as a Preacher.* By the Rev. JOHN FOSTER. Published under the superintendence of OLINTHUS GREGORY, LL. D., F. R. A. S., Professor of Mathematics in the Royal Military Academy, and JOSEPH BELCHER, D. D. In four volumes. New York: Harper & Brothers.

The American public are here furnished with another standard theological work, from one of the most distinguished Baptist divines of Great Britain. It embraces the great bulk of his sermons, and also his political essays, exhibiting the full proportion of his moral and intellectual efforts during an active life. The prominent traits of his works, in our judgment, are clearness, eloquence, a full and flowing style; all borne along by an ingenuous philanthropy, founded upon a desire to improve the moral and religious condition of those whom he addressed. They are a most valuable contribution to ecclesiastical literature, and will be highly and justly prized by the very large and respectable denomination, in our own country, to which he was particularly attached.

9.—*Sermons by Hugh Blair, D. D., F. R. S. Edinburgh, one of the Ministers of the High Church, and Professor of Rhetoric and Belles Lettres in the University of Edinburgh. To which is prefixed, the Life and Character of the Author.* By JAMES FINLAYSON, D. D. Complete in one volume. From the last London edition. Printed verbatim from the original edition. 8vo., pp. 622. New York: John S. Taylor & Co.

Dr. Blair is too well known to the readers of the present day, to require our commendation. His lectures on rhetoric and belles lettres have been long used as a text-book in the colleges and higher schools of this country, and have received the stamp of general popularity. The present volume, embracing his sermons, exhibits the clearness of argument and the elegance of style that we might reasonably expect from one who is most distinguished as a critic, and a learned teacher of the art of composition, as well as a popular theologian. George III., of England, was the friend and patron of Dr. Blair, and is said to have expressed the wish that the Bible and these sermons were in the hands of every youth in the United Kingdom.

10.—*The Works of that Learned and Judicious Divine, Mr. Richard Hooker. With an account of his Life and Death.* By ISAAC WALTON. Arranged by the Rev. JOHN KEBLE, M. A., late Fellow of Oriel College, Oxford, Professor of Poetry. First American, from the last Oxford edition. In 2 volumes. 8vo., pp. 511–447. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

We here have another standard work of one of the great theological writers of England. Although some of the arguments maintained would not suit the public opinion of the present age, the efforts of a man like Mr. Hooker, termed by courtesy "the judicious," will be read with profound respect for their power of thought, their splendid but quaint diction, and their apparent honesty. They embody vast learning; they are full in discussion of the ordinances of the church to which he belonged, and will doubtless form a part of every theological library.

11.—*The Clay Code, or Text-Book of Eloquence; a Collection of Axioms, Apothegms, Sentiments, and Remarkable Passages on Liberty, Government, Political Morality, and National Honor, gathered from the Public Speeches of Henry Clay.* Edited by G. VANDENHOFF, Professor of Rhetoric. 12mo., pp. 150. New York: E. Shepard.

The volume whose title we have quoted, contains the most brilliant passages from the speeches of Henry Clay, which have been made during a long and active political career. Those passages refer to almost every subject connected with the public interest, with which he has been closely identified for the last thirty years; and they exhibit clearly the prominent traits which distinguish this most commanding orator and statesman. In them, we behold a comprehensive genius, a fearless moral courage, an impressive eloquence, and a broad patriotism, which are as closely interwoven with the interests of his native land, as are the mountains and the rivers, the lakes and the forests of the nation, with its soil. It is a most appropriate text-book in aid of the purpose for which it is designed.

12.—*The Opal; a Christmas Gift for the Holidays.* Edited by Mrs. Sarah Josepha Hale. Illustrated by J. G. Chapman. New York: J.C. Riker.

The little volume bearing the name of that gem which always appears to us to emit a lustre like the moon, contains some pieces of a substantial character, as well as those of a lighter cast. Mrs. Hale has been judicious in her selection of the contributions, as well as the adornment of the book. It is of a decidedly moral tone, and it constitutes a beautiful and appropriate present for the holidays. We are rejoiced to learn that the experiment of last year convinced Mr. Riker, the publisher, that an annual prepared with reference to the true Christian standard, showing goodness in an agreeable light, virtue in her sweet loveliness, and piety cheerfully promoting happiness, cannot fail of success.

13.—*The Gift, for* 1845. 8vo., pp. 300. Philadelphia: Carey & Hart.

This is an unusually large and elegant annual, and its contents are in keeping with the physical character of the work. They embrace highly valued contributions from Henry W. Longfellow, N. P. Willis, W. H. Furness, R. W. Emerson, Mrs. Sigourney, Charles Fenno Hoffman, H. T. Tuckerman, and others, who have earned a well deserved reputation in this department of periodical literature. The engraved illustrations are well executed; and the embellishments of the volume, in other respects, are elegant and appropriate. It is, on the whole, the gift-book of the season.

14.—*The History of the Popes, their Church and State, in the Sixteenth and Seventeenth Centuries.* By Leopold Ranke. Translated from the last edition of the German. By Walter Keating Kelly, Esq. B. A., of Trinity College, Dublin. 8vo., pp. 664. Philadelphia: Lea & Blanchard.

The History of the Popes exhibits the most prominent circumstances which marked that gigantic hierarchy, the Church of Rome, during the time of which it treats. It appears to be a labored and solid work, and is written in a clear and popular style. It commences with a consideration of Christianity in the Roman empire, traces the connection of Papacy with the state at different periods, with all its remarkable vicissitudes, and comes down as late as the year 1829. It is doubtless a work of standard value, and will go to form a part of every well selected library.

15.—*A Drama of Exile, and other Poems.* By Elizabeth B. Barrett. 2 volumes. New York: Henry G. Langley.

We may safely commend these volumes to our readers. They include at once some of the most elevated, sublime, and delicate poems of the present age. Their morality is Christian morality; not the morality of a set religious purpose, appearing on the outside in mere vague declamation, but the deep devotion of the soul in a heart and mind mutually instructed in the sublime sorrows and hopeful joys of the Gospel. In truth, this is one of the rarest gifts of the muse in our time. It is poetry—lofty, noble, pure; inspiring zeal and devotion for all good and intellectual pursuits. Miss Barrett's life is simple-minded, her objects devout. Her poetry gives us pleasure, and it leads us to a higher sense of enjoyment than mere pleasure. No better volumes could be read and studied by readers of her own sex.

16.—*The Life of Francis Marion.* By W. Gilmore Simms. New York: Henry G. Langley. 12mo., pp. 347.

Mr. Simms is certainly entitled to great credit for his industry and talent in illustrating the history of the southern portion of the Union. Besides placing before the public several popular romances, he has compiled a clear and compact, though brief history of South Carolina, which is now followed by this life of Marion. The subject of the biography was a distinguished actor in the American revolution. He was a brave and patriotic officer, and his name is identified with the history of his native state. The author appears to have done justice to his subject, and has given us an account of the life of this daring and successful man, in a very appropriate form.

17.—*Connection of Sacred and Profane History; being a Review of the Principal Events in the World, as they bear upon the state of Religion, from the close of the Old Testament History till the establishment of Christianity.* By D. DAVIDSON. 3 volumes, 12mo. New York: Robert Carter.

This is certainly one of the most valuable contributions to the historical and religious literature of our times, and affords new evidence of the importance of connecting the study of sacred with profane history. It differs in several important particulars with similar preceding works, particularly in regard to Nebuchadnezzar's conquest; in tracing the events by which the Greeks ascended to universal empire; the Punic wars, &c.; but our space will only admit of the bare mention of the facts. The object of the work is to induce readers of history, especially the young, to investigate the designs of God in his administration, and to recognize his unsearchable perfections and absolute goodness in all things. Three volumes of about two hundred and fifty pages each, at $1 50, is cheap.

18.—*A Commentary on St. Paul's Epistle to the Galatians.* By MARTIN LUTHER. New York: Robert Carter.

The admirers of that faithful and fearless champion of the Reformation will heartily thank Mr. Carter for reproducing in this country an edition of this remarkable work of Luther, on the Galatians. It is a very beautiful specimen of the typographic art in this country, printed on a very fine white paper; and, although forming an octavo volume of more than five hundred pages, is afforded at the astonishingly low price of one dollar and fifty cents; thus placing it within reach of every family where the doctrines of the Reformation are held with love and veneration.

19.—*A System of Universal History in Prospective.* By EMMA WILLARD. Philadelphia: A. S. Barnes & Co.

Mrs. Willard, who has been quite successful in the composition of several popular works, has executed this volume upon a new plan. It is amply provided with maps and engravings, as well as with chronological references. We here have a general survey of universal history. The volume exhibits uncommon order, condensation, and clearness of style; and presents, in a succinct form, the most remarkable historical facts which have distinguished the progress of the human race.

20.—*The Works of Charlotte Elizabeth.* Vol. 2. New York: M. W. Dodd.

We noticed, in a former number of this Magazine, the appearance of the first volume of the works of this popular writer. The second is now before us, and is equal, in all respects, to its predecessor. It embraces seven works, viz: Izram, a Mexican Tale—Helen Fleetwood—Passing Thoughts—The Flower Garden—Poems on the Peninsular War—Principalities and Powers in Heavenly Places—Second Causes; or, Up and be Doing.

21.—*The Psalmodist; a Choice Collection of Psalm and Hymn Tunes, chiefly new. Adapted to the very numerous Metres now in use; together with Chants, Anthems, and other Pieces, for the use of Choirs.* By THOMAS HASTINGS and WILLIAM B. BRADBURY. New York: Mark H. Newman.

The music in this volume, derived from interesting sources, appears to have been prepared with the utmost labor and care. Most of it is now for the first time presented to the American public, and is adapted to fifty different metres, found in the most popular psalm and hymn-books of the present day.

22.—*Christian Fragments; or, Remarks on the Nature, Precepts, and Comforts of Religion.* By JOHN BURNS, M. D., F. R. S., Professor of Surgery in the University of Glasgow. New York: Robert Carter.

Here is a collection of fragments, relating to the nature, precepts, and comforts of the Christian religion, that the devout reader may take up, and lay down, without breaking any train of reasoning. It is, in the popular application of the term, orthodox, or evangelical.

WORKS IN PAMPHLET FORM, RECEIVED SINCE OUR LAST.

1.—*A New System of Domestic Cookery, founded upon the Principles of Economy, and adopted to the Use of Private Families.* By Mrs. Randell. From the sixty-seventh London edition. Augmented and improved by the addition of more than nine hundred receipts, suited to the present state of the art of Cookery. Philadelphia: Cary & Hart. [This is a reprint from the English edition, and it is stated that 280,000 copies of it have been sold in England, and that Mr. Murray, the London publisher, paid Mr. Randell 2,000 guineas for the copy right of the work. It was originally intended for the circle of the families of the authoress's own daughters, and "for the arrangement of the table, so as to unite a good figure with economy."]

2.—*Peter Ploddy, and other Oddities.* By Joseph C. Neal. Author of "Charcoal Sketches;" with ten Illustrations, engraved by Croom, from original designs by Dorley. Philadelphia: Carey & Hart. [The letter press sketches in this readable little volume, overflow with rich humor and pathos; and the designs of the artist are the best we have ever seen on this side the Atlantic.

3.—*The Illustrated Bible History, a compilation of the Important Events recorded in the Old and New Testament.* New York: Wilson & Co. [This handsome little volume contains the most remarkable passages in the history of the New Testament, illustrated with one hundred and forty engravings. It is admirably adapted for Sunday Schools or families.]

4.—*The Chairman and Speaker's Guide; or Rules for the Orderly Conduct of Public Meetings.* By Thomas Smith, Esq.; author of "Perfect System of Elocution, &c." New York: Wilson & Co. [Here is a comprehensive manual, indispensible for all who expect to take part in debates, either in legislative bodies or popular assemblies, and more especially for those who are called upon to preside over the deliberations of such meetings.]

5.—*The Physiology of Health; being a view of some of the more important Functions of the Human Body, with observations on their management; to which are added a Dietical Regimen for Dyspeptics, or comparative nutriment of different foods and drinks.* By Jonathan Pereira, M. D., F. R. S. L. S., author of "Food and Diet." New York: Wilson & Co.

6.—*Dunigan's Illuminated edition of the Holy Bible, according to Douay and Rheimish Versions.* New York: Edward Dunigan. [The present edition of the Bible, (Catholic,) two numbers of which are before us, is to be continued weekly until completed, in twenty numbers. It is in royal octavo form, handsomely printed on fine paper, and afforded at 12½ cents a number. It has been revised by Bishop Hughes, and is by him recommended "to the faithful, to be read with that reverence and respect which are due to the word of God," &c.

7.—*The Emigrant's True Guide; comprising Advice and Instruction in every stage of the Voyage to America, the Purchase of Lands, and Final Settlement.* New York: J. Winchester. [This excellent little manual for emigrants contains just that kind of information that every man in the old world, who proposes emigrating to America, requires, on leaving the land of his nativity, and through every subsequent stage of his progress, to his landing on our shores, and final settlement in our cities, or on the lands of the national domain, in the great west.]

8.—*The Cruise of the Somers; illustrative of the Despotism of the Quarter-Deck, and the unmanly conduct of Commander Mackenzie.* Third edition. With an Appendix. By Hon. William Sturgess. New York: J. Winchester.

9.—*An Address before the Phi Beta Kappa Society of Dartmouth College.* By Hon. Levi Woodbury. Hanover: Dartmouth Press. [The great doctrine of the progress of man and society, is explained and illustrated in the present essay, which we have read with deep interest, by a series of pertinent facts and arguments, that must convince every observing mind that the race is destined to reach a far higher state of moral, intellectual, social and material perfection, and is in fact capable of endless progression. Mr. Woodbury has presented the clearest and most comprehensive statement of the doctrine that has fallen under our observation, and the wide diffusion of the views advanced, although not new, cannot fail of producing the most beneficial results.]

10.—*The Prophecies of Daniel, No.* 1. *Nebuchadnezzar's Dream of the Great Image.* By George Bush, Professor of Hebrew, New York City University. New York: Harper & Brothers. [The first number published contains 72 pages—the whole work to be completed in ten or twelve numbers, of about the same number of pages.]

11.—*Physiology for Children.* By Mrs. Jane Taylor. New York: Saxton & Miles. [Thirty thousand copies of this admirable little work have already been published.]

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HUNT'S

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.

DECEMBER, 1844.

Art. I.—GERMANY, AND THE COMMERCIAL TREATY OF BERLIN.

We think that the great commercial union of the German states, which, in a very short space of time, has wrought among them a reform amounting to revolution, merits a more particular study from our citizens than it has yet generally obtained; and this, as well on account of the resemblance of many of its features to those of our own confederation, as of the relation to it in which we at present stand. Perhaps a few remarks on our part may serve to direct the attention of some to this subject. We will make them without further introduction.

Half a generation ago, only, the schoolboy who was studying his map of what is named Germany, seeing a number of blotches of every shape, size and color, dotted over it from one end to the other, blue, green, red, white and yellow, many times repeated, all numbered, with reference to the margin; because their diminutive size rendered it impossible otherwise to indicate their names; was taught to his astonishment, that each of them represented a sovereignty, or fragment of one, as selfishly independent of its neighbors as though it were one of the first of first rate powers. The traveller in Germany too, was taught the distinct supremacy of each state he visited, more forcibly than the school boy. At the present time, such a one, when he is journeying along through what seems to him to be one and the same country, inhabited by one and the same people, is told often when he can discern no natural boundary even by stretch of imagination, by his merely meeting a boundary post or two, painted differently from the last that he passed by—by meeting differently dressed soldiers and a different assortment of colors for the national flag, that he has changed by one revolution of the wheels of his post chaise, the government, constitution, laws and monarch under whom he lives; he may even by possibility be thus called upon to observe that he has gone from one of the Saxes to a bit *of Prussia*, Prussia to some of the Hesses, and Hesses *to another part of Saxony again*, in the course of an hour's drive in one *direction, straightforward* as the crow flies; then, however, the experi-

ence did not end here with him. He found no single attribute of sovereignty wanting in the smallest of the territories through which he passed. Above all, was he called upon to recognize the existence of that right of independent governments, which consists in the offering of constant annoying impediments to the change of place of man and merchandize. At the crossing of any one of the many Mason & Dixon's lines which divide the territory of one state from that of its neighbors, he was stopped and made to undergo a rigid examination of his person and effects, nor was he permitted to travel onward, before making disbursements for the affixing of certain endorsements to his passport, and for the payment of duties of export and import on his baggage, to certain government police or custom house officers, authorized to receive, or help themselves to the same.

Unnatural, indeed, was this condition of things, and grievous were the consequences also, resulting from it. The self-isolating sort of independence of each German state was detrimental in the highest degree to the just exchanges of commerce between them all. Many have no outlet for their surplus products, and no great channels for receiving their equivalent, but rivers which empty into the sea within the territory of other states. These latter had, consequently, the power of controlling, or even entirely putting a stop to their trade; and this power, although the perjurers of the holy alliance, expressly guaranteed to every subject of the old confederation, the right of freely navigating such rivers, some of them exercised with a most unsparing hand. The brigand barons of the Rhine in the old time were used to lie in wait like spiders watching for flies, ready to pounce upon the poor merchant whose boat passed by their fortress towers, and to either despoil him of all his goods, or commit upon him that partial kind of robbery, which consists in levying toll or custom; so, in our own civilized times was the same sort of wrong perpetrated by their successors, the princes of the empire by the grace of God, Metternich and Lord Castlereagh. All was grist that came to their mill. Scarce any thing that would bear a duty was exempted from it. Each state endeavored to overreach its neighbor by increasing its tariff; and, indeed, for many articles, made it amount to a prohibitory one. As must always happen in such cases, the tax thus imposed upon the merchant, fell upon the people at large, and ultimately, by diminishing his resources and revenues, upon the monarch himself. Commerce languished, and all industry with it, and the subject suffered without profit to his ruler. Besides, to the governments it was a great difficulty to raise these imposts. The similarity of language of the contiguous countries, the noble rivers which run through them, and the want of natural barriers between them—all elements of strength to a people united—disunited, was their weakness. Smuggling abounded, and the immoralities consequent upon it. To suppress this, as far as possible, an army of custom house officers was found necessary, and these, while they devoured the substance of the land, were, of course, so many taken away from the number of producers.

This artificial state of things might have been endured by the Germans, so long as they felt as aliens to one another; but this sort of feeling ceased before Leipzig and Waterloo; and since the pacification, up to our own day, all the tendency of their education has been to teach them, on the other hand, that they are brethren, who ought to prize and cultivate as something sacred, their relationship. All the thinkers of Germany have been given to discoursing upon this theme; and it has been

the fashion among them, in like manner, to deplore the disunion which fritters away the resources of their common land. When, therefore, the people, suffering directly in their existence of every day from the evils of disunion, failed not to discover its absolute needlessness, they very naturally turned the force of the existing active spirit of nationality, upon the actual grievance which oppressed them. Here was an example of the ill—an incarnation of the evil principle; here was an occasion for the application of the remedy. Men talked and wrote upon the matter, from one end of the country to the other, till the slow mind of the mass was moved. The disturbances in 1831, when an exasperated peasantry rose, somewhat like the Rebeccaites of Wales, last year, to destroy the custom houses, where were carried into effect the legalized robberies upon them, were put down by bloodshed and force of arms; but they showed that the burden had grown too oppressive to be any longer borne. It was evident to all who then looked on observingly, that some change must soon take place.

Prussia, the young monarchy of Europe, took the initiative, in availing herself of this disposition. She was governed at this time by an old man whose increasing years were teaching him increasing cautious forethought, —an old man who had been taught, by dear experience of misfortune, more wisdom than it usually falls to the lot of monarchs to possess. Through the want of co-operation of the German potentates, Frederick William had seen himself degraded and stripped of power, his people plundered, and his family insulted; and, on the other hand, he had seen his hated master, Bonaparte driven back to France, and himself disenthralled by the after union of themselves and subjects—reverses from which no fool could fail to draw the obvious lesson. He saw that his dominions were in detached portions separated from each other by intervening domain of other powers; he saw that his Rhenish provinces advanced like "*enfans perdus*" beyond the main body of his possessions, would be an easy prey to the next French invaders that crossed the castled river, and thoughts of the possible propagandist consequences of the revolution of 1830, whose shock in France vibrated throughout Eastern Europe, made him tremble; for he felt that of his own unassisted strength he was as little able to defend his kingdom as thirty years before. In view of continued peace, he might perhaps have thought it more favorable to the interests of despotism, that the detached arrows of the people's strength should not be bound together in one bundle, but in view of war, he saw in it his only hope of salvation. Accordingly, after some time spent in preparatory negociations, in 1833, he formed a league with the only five Powers he could induce to join him, for the purpose of putting an end, as far at least as the instrumentality of each was concerned, to these evils; calling it the "Zoll Verein," or Toll Union. This was the nucleus of the present powerful association. It succeeded so well in attaining its designed object, that as its prosperity increased, other powers found it impossible to resist the wishes of their subjects, and the working of the lasionary legislation which the associated states, in some cases, purposely directed against them. They were obliged one after another to give in their adhesion also, to it; and now, the Zoll Verein unites about two-thirds of all the German population.

These have reciprocally established a system of weights and measures, adjusted according to one approved unvarying standard.

A uniform coinage, which secures a uniform measure of value to all the people, and at the same time puts in circulation one coin to remind them that they are one nation.

Uniform commercial regulations as regards the intercourse of the states with stranger nations; a power being conferred upon the Senate which regulates the affairs of the Union, of making treaties with foreign powers binding upon the whole confederation, which enables them to bargain as buyers by wholesale, united in one firm, and not as heretofore, like petty retailers, striving to underbid each other.

Uniform duties of import, export and transit; and a kind of free trade and intercourse similar to that of our own blessed Union. The frontier states levy the duties agreed upon by the states in council, on merchandize coming from abroad, and the receipts are divided among all of them, in a strict rated proportion to the population of each. The frontier once passed, all goods except salt and playing cards, are free to move wherever their owner lists, many of the interior states having no customs' "cordon" whatever.

The effect of this action has been such as was to be expected from the importance of the enactments cited. The paper barriers which before imprisoned the German inhabitant within his own little precinct, have been entirely broken down, and he is now free to wander about and trade, in almost two-thirds of all the land in which his own tongue is spoken. A change has been given, in consequence, to the whole face of the country. Turnpikes and highways have been mended and widened. Twenty-one railroads, more than eleven hundred miles in length, draw near to each other distant places, separated by an extent of dry land. Steamboats run everywhere on the great rivers and their tributaries, and down them freely float to the ocean, as the Creator intended, the commodities produced in the countries watered by them. To all industry an impulse has been given. With commerce, agriculture and manufactures have received an increase of prosperity. The circulation of capital has been stimulated, the value of property increased.

Nor has the result of the union been, nor will the result of the union be, merely to effect the objects in its terms explicitly specified. The moral consequences are going to prove more important than the material. The lamentable divisions by which have been separated from each other the different parts of the joint country of Frederick and Gœthe, Kant and Leibnitz, are in every sense being healed. The states are no longer Saxe or Lippe this, that, or t'other, Reuss Greitzes, Reuss Schleitzes, or Reuss Lobenstein Ebersdorfs; little patches of territory isolated as if expressly to be successive mouthfuls for a devouring army. They still are called by these names, it is true, and still have the (mal-)administration of their governments, as to many serious matters, confided to little gambling princes and their mistresses, with little courts, little courtiers, and all manner of such expensive prettinesses. But all this has no foundation but "vieux parchemias," and the first storm will sweep it away. Not only the same coin, but the same ideas are circulating everywhere; not only different commodities, but different ideas are interchanged, not only enlightenment, but that other "vis" of the democracy, their sense of numbers, is increasing. All northern and south-western Germany, from the Alps to the Baltic, from the Danube to the Niemer and the Rhine, is becoming like

ourselves, one formed from many—one family of the children of one father land.

In the United States, we are generally unaware how self-relying and well to do a country is this Germany, so much has her condition improved since 1814. At that time, when the cruel wars that harrassed her were ended, and quiet restored, we know that she was dependant upon England for nearly all but the very coarsest manufactures she consumed. This is the case no longer. Thirty years of peace have done what Napoleon with his continental system, backed by all his legions and the united monarchs of the main of Europe, was unable to effect. The soldier generation has passed away, and in its place has grown up that of the mechanic, taught to manage other tools than bayonet, sword, or firelock, in the world's industrial war. At first importing English workmen and English machines—human and iron models, she has learned to produce many things cheaper than the country which furnished her teachers. Germany, (we mean the Germany of the League, for in that sense we must henceforth be understood to use the term and its derivatives,) is capable of raising more than double the quantity of corn necessary for the subsistence of her population, and consequently has a large number of surplus laborers to employ in manufactures. These are more sober, steady, economical and thrifty than the English workmen, and being better educated, are, nine cases out of ten, more intelligent. Her people's food costs them, too, less than the Englishman's, for there are no "corn laws" to enhance its natural just value, and their rents also less. It costs them less to erect their factories, for timber and stone are cheaper, as well as the hire of the carpenter and mason. Machinery, to be sure, costs them more, but a ridiculous law which forbade its export from England, has forced them to learn to make this, too, at a not very material advance of price. From these causes, it is plain that they must derive a great advantage over their competitors. The capitalist has seen this. His investment, no longer exposed to the hazards of war, he has laid out his money in the creation of manufactories and workshops in general, till they swarm in every eligible situation the country affords. So far, indeed, is Germany from being now dependant on Great Britain, that she is, on the contrary, driving her out of many of the foreign markets she was used to call most peculiarly her own. Germany's exports of manufactured cottons alone, have increased 360 per cent, in the seven years ending with 1839; that is to say, to an amount nearly equal to one-sixth of the whole product of Great Britain, and more than five times as great as she takes from that country.

Two of her most important manufactures, however, those of iron and steel, and cotton; the latter employing at the time of the last statement we have met with, 311,532 work people, are still dependant in a certain measure upon England. The former derives thence its chief supply of the raw material; the latter can not make itself its cotton yarn as cheaply as she can for it. In the production of this article, the countrymen of Arkwright, and the spinning jennies, are still superior to the rest of the world; and the Germans have so far found it more to their profit to import from them, in the form of twist, as it is called, four-fifths of the cotton they have been using.* From this dependence they desire extremely to

* Thus, while the *importation of loom fabrics* from Great Britain diminished from 1832 *to 1841, some £300,000 sterling in value*, those of twist increased in the same time from *£1,197,274 to £2,406,396, or* more than double—so as to form nearly one-third the

free themselves. A natural dislike to being thus at the mercy of others, does much, doubtless, to produce this feeling. Its chief cause, however, is to be found in the fact, that Great Britain will not take their products to an at all corresponding extent in exchange. Corn and timber, their most important ones, she excludes by duties that may be called prohibitory; nor is she much more liberal in the admission of others. Such an unequal trade as this, ought not to continue, and Germany says that it shall not. The unfair privileges which her weakness granted, her strength refuses any longer. She has made remonstrances upon remonstrances to Great Britain; yet, though Germany is her best customer, better even lately than the United States, taking as she does seven millions and a half sterling annually of her exported manufactures, which is one-sixth of their entire amount, Great Britain thinks fit to turn a deaf ear to her complaints. Germany has been forced to retaliate in self defence. Already she has made her duty almost prohibitory for Great Britain's coarser kinds of cotton goods; nearly twenty-seven times as great as that upon twist, and quite recently has made an important increase for her mixed cotton and woolen stuffs. Still having failed to induce her to modify her tariff, Germany, wishing only justice, as is proved by her having offered to make direct concessions to the British government, if it would lower the duty on cotton velvets merely, at last says openly, like the old man to the apple stealers, that "if grass won't do, she must have recourse to stones," and declares her determination, come what may, to tax the unfair trader's chief exports to her; iron 33 per cent, and twist, $1 38 each centner (113 19-50 lbs. nearly) more than at present, or cent per cent. This also seems to be without effect, no return having been made to it on the part of Great Britain but arrogant language, of which the Downing street despatch of the Earl of Aberdeen to Lord Westmoreland, that made its appearance not a great while ago in our newspapers, may be taken as a fair specimen. She abates none of her pretensions, refuses to do any justice, and instead, tries to bully Germany out of her purpose by obscure threats of retaliation and the Lord knows what. But in spite of Lord Aberdeen and his menaces, she will put it into execution. The enhancement of the duty on iron and steel will no doubt increase the cost of her manufactures of these articles; and candidly, we cannot but think her course, in this respect, though perfectly justifiable, unwise, since it may render her unable to sustain herself in her newly obtained markets; but, to spin her own cotton, will cost her but little, and that little the people are willing to pay. Her manufactories of twist have increased up to the present date with surprising rapidity; a sufficient proof of which is to be found in the fact, that her import of *raw* cotton increased 260 per cent in the seven years ending 1840; and the cotton spinners, having grown into an important and powerful interest, are strenuously "agitating" the question of having this tax laid in their favor.

Now, should the spinners obtain the increased protection proposed, should what we may call a rupture of friendly commercial intercourse

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amount of the total imports from thence. The average number of pounds weight of twist imported annually, on an average, of the three years, 1837, 1838, 1839, was 50,888,970 pounds; and if we account 70,000,000 pounds for the quantity of it consumed per annum, at present, which is stated to be the fact, and subtract from it one-fifth, the proportionate quantity manufactured at home, we may set down the annual import of the Zoll Verein at this time, as at least 56,000,000 pounds.

take place, as threatened, between Germany and Great Britain, this important fact is to be remarked; the former is thrown upon us to obtain her supply of cotton, and the English twist which she now imports at an annual cost of something like twelve million dollars, comes from the United States direct, as the raw material.

There can be no doubt that this probable course of trade was early foreseen by Germany, and that in view of it, the negociations were entered into, which last spring at Washington were brought to such an untimely end. Great Britain sillily makes her manufacturer pay a duty on cotton, equal to about half a cent per pound, or seven per cent ad valorem, as prices go, thus giving to his German rival, of course, a virtual protection of seven per cent, provided he receives his cotton duty free. Germany is thus stimulated to an additional extent to endeavor to secure to herself a permanent supply of this article on the most advantageous terms, by approaching her commercial relations with the United States, and this, so great a benefit to ourselves, she counted upon accomplishing by the late treaty of Berlin.

Let us now say a few words about this instrument. We will be brief; purposely confining our attention to a few of its features that we know with certainty, and to a few facts bearing upon its character and history, that are altogether incontrovertible.

By it, in the first place, we were to give to the Zoll Verein states, about $270,000, in the remission of duties to that amount on the merchandize we import from them. But this was outweighed more than $70,000 by those released in our favor on tobacco alone; so that if we had space to devote to this part of our subject, it would be easy to show a heavy balance on the credit side of our treasury books, as far as the lightening of imposts is concerned. Enough, however, of this small sort of argument.

By it, in the second place, we were to give to the Zoll Verein states, if we may judge from what is now sent us, a sale far near $2,000,000 worth of articles their own manufacture. But, more than $1,500,000 worth of these, are not manufactured at all in the United States, and therefore interfere with no existing interests on the part of our manufacturers. Subtract then, this sum from $1,950,000, being the stated value of the manufactures annually imported by us, and we have a remainder of less than $500,000.

The sum of which, to recapitulate, amounts to pretty nearly this. We were to give, at our cost, to the states forming the Zoll Verein, all and simply, a market for a scant half million's worth of these fabrics in whose confection, they, by possibility, might have become our competitors. It will scarcely be believed by one who examines into this subject for the first time, that this is the whole of what the bugbear language of the committee of the senate calls the "extending to whole classes a large variety of articles comprehended in our tariff."

Yet, to compensate us for the sacrifice of buying this $500,000 worth of goods at the cheapest prices they are to be had for, the states of the Customs Union offered to open wide to us the gates of their market, and allow us to sell freely our national staples to at least twenty-eight millions of people!

The average value of our exports for the two years, ending September, *1842, was, of cotton, over* $50,000,000; rice, about $2,000,000; to-

bacco, more than $10,000,000. Well, they would have admitted our cotton, duty free, our rice, for which there is such an increasing demand in Germany, and our tobacco, almost so; the one paying about a cent a pound, the other, one cent a pound for leaf, one cent and a third for stems; and they would have let our lard, that excellent form in which we Yankees are learning to carry our corn, condensed in volume, to distant markets, come in at something like a cent a pound.

This is the first great concession, that, since the formation of our Union, we have been able to obtain in favor of our tobacco. The great neighbors of Zoll Verein Germany still continue wedded to their old policy of exclusion. At this moment, Austria is laying an impost upon it of near six cents, Russia, from twelve to twenty-five, and Great Britain of seventy-two cents a pound; while France expressly prohibits it, except when her "Regie" or government monopoly administration, finding its domestic and colonial supply deficient, condescends to buy some of it from us for its own use. For half a century we have been paying unearned wages to tobacco agents and other diplomatists of less humble title, but no greater efficiency. Mr. Wheaton is the first of our negotiators who has met with success. This is no doubt to be attributed to his enviable personal influence. His reputation abroad as a scholar, an author, and a jurist, is an honor to our country. Of no one is the society more courted, of no one are the opinions on matters of international law and political economy more respected. In the United States, we all heard with exultation of the sensation which his treatise on the right of search excited in the cabinets of Europe, but many of us were by it, first made to find out the name which he enjoys derived from other sources. It is to fall short of the truth, rather than otherwise, to say, that in our day, no man has stood so high as an American statesman. We are far from wishing to depreciate the greatness of Livingston, or to deny our tribute to his intrinsic worth; but it must be borne in mind that Mr. Wheaton has had a great advantage over him, in being for so long a period the representative of our nation at the Prussian court. We heard it said by a distinguished French journalist, at Paris, last winter, in exaggerated language, which, however, is truthful enough to express our meaning:—"You have many tourist members of Congress, and other similar transitory travelling diplomates, but Henry Wheaton is your only Minister Resident. He is the only one of your emissaries, except the venerable Beasley, of the Havre, from whom they tell us, in passing be it said, your representatives at this court always take their instruction, and whom forsooth, you only call consul—the only one who has lived long enough in the country to which he is accredited, to understand its laws, its customs, or its language, even."

Not to be led off from our subject into a puff, however. From 1838 to 1844, six entire years, this gentleman unweariedly labored to effect this one purpose. Of no opportunity which any vicissitude in the affairs of any one of the members of the Union, any particular conjuncture of circumstances offered, did he fail to avail himself. Aided by his intimate knowledge of German things, as well as great world questions, and by his elevated social position, he was enabled thus, to advantage, to press this subject upon the attention of the statesmen who manage the affairs of the Zoll Verein, and to convince them of what was their true interest. *No other* man living, we are persuaded, could have completed the nego-

tiation of the late treaty, obliged as he necessarily was, to contend against the intrigues and open opposition of adverse foreign powers.

Great Britain, that was foremost among these, was greatly displeased upon learning of its conclusion. She made angry diplomatic mention of it; and in a recent debate in the House of Commons, Sir Robert Peel went so far as to intimate that her British Majesty's Government did not recognize the right of the United States to confer favors on Germany, or any other nation, not shared to an equal extent by Great Britain.

We have, we think, stated already sufficient reasons to explain why this should be so; but one, the chiefest, still needs perhaps to be pointed out. In the event of Germany taking our agricultural produce in direct exchange for her own manufactures, it is too plain to need demonstration, that we would have taken these in preference to the manufactures of Great Britain, who does her best to exclude such agricultural produce, and thus she would have seen herself compelled, under pain of losing her trade with us, to abolish her present restrictive system. This action too, would have taken place to no trifling extent, on account of the magnitude of the market opened to us. The single item of tobacco is sufficient in this way to affect her interests to a most injurious extent. We conceive it impossible to form a just estimate, which would not appear extravagant, of the quantity which, under the treaty, we should have exported of it within a few years, when the large tracts of land at present devoted to its culture in Germany, would have ceased to compete with our own south and west. Still, it is not the quantity of tobacco which the Germans of the Zoll Verein alone, are capable of smoking, chewing, or snuffing, when prices may be reduced to them, from one end of the year to the other, which we have to consider. The contrabandist also, would have consumed his portion. Cotton fabrics, of no diminutive bulk are smuggled so largely into Austria, Russia and Poland, that substantial houses at Leipzic guarantee to carry them safely beyond the custom house lines of these countries, at rates varying from 10 to 12 per cent; and, certain it is, that Nicot's plant is more easily transported with secrecy than heavy tickings, or six cent shirtings. As for Austria, it is a notorious truth, that scarcely a shawl, glove, or French silk, that the Viennese wear, ever pays a cent of duty to her government; and, as for Russia, the starving Cossack douaniers by whom her dominions are belted round, are much too poorly paid to be able, for one moment, to resist the bribes of the men, who may offer to share with them their profit of $1 50 on every round of segars, and 25 cents for the same weight of stemmed leaves. The cheap tobacco, once landed in the states of the Union, it goes from them to their neighbors as naturally as water runs to find its own level.

Great Britain, then, might well be displeased, as we have said. With the "German United States," for our allies, in the proud contest for the mercantile supremacy of continental Europe, in commerce and manufactures, on her own sea, and with her own iron, we would have surpassed her. But an American Senate has avenged the quarrel of that proud empire; and Prussia and her associates are well rebuked for their ill advised manifestations of friendship toward us.

It sickens and saddens us to talk of these things, when we think of the treaty's fate, and that we are but pronouncing its obituary. We have not said all that we intended about the rising greatness of the Zoll Verein *Association. Only a few years* will go by, before the twelve millions of

German Austria, and the three millions of Hanover, Oldenburgh, and Brunswick, will also form part of it, increasing its population to over forty-two millions, or more than that of any European power, save semi-Asiatic Russia. We had thought too, of many more facts to state, which bear upon the question of the treaty, particularly as to the manner in which our shipping interest would have been benefitted by the great carrying trade it would have opened to us; but, let all this pass.

One word only, more. Our ancestors came from England. The ancestors of our ancestors came from this same Germany. If England is to be called our *mother* country, then soberly and without jest, we must claim Germany for our maternal grandfather-land. We bear not its name, but we take our blood from it. And now, that the world is ceasing to be considered as left by God to his children, only that they may quarrel about the inheritance thereof, and shed each other's blood for its appropriation, shall we remain as a German calls it, "thus lonely in the wide bosom of the all, encased each of us in his transparent 'ice palace,' our brother visible in his, making signals and gesticulations to us, visible but unattainable." Shall we not embrace our relations and acknowledge them to be our kin?

Looking into futurity, are not those connections for our nation likely to be most profitable and permanent, which nature bids us to form? And of which of the three great countriesof Europe, nearest us, can this be said, with most truthfulness, to be the fact?

France is not like us. Notwithstanding all that has happened to draw us near to her; although we have twice fought together against a common foe, although she gave us La Fayette, although we sheltered her exiles, no favoring legislation, no chain of events, no earnest and honest desire we have to do so, have been able to deceive us into the belief that her people are homogeneous with our own. We can admire her liberality of sentiment and her noble and generous impulses, but we cannot assimilate our people to hers, we cannot make them feel alike. They are, and ever must be to us, strangers, having to be sure, great claim to our esteem, respect and good will, but still strangers.

With England, conflicting interests, and the heart burnings of our sad quarrels, bid fair, for a long time, for family quarrels last the longest, says the proverb, to forbid any cordial union.

But, with Germany we obey the laws of nature in forming a heart and hand alliance. After the English, no people resemble our own like hers. We need not dwell upon their good qualities; upon their perseverance, their economy, their good-heartedness, their wholesome common sense, their admirable contentment, their sterling morality, the sound democratic instincts which seem to flow from this combination of good qualities, as their legitimate consequence. The commonwealth of Pennsylvania, at least, knows how they abound in those her invaluable citizens, the children of the elder branch of the Teuton family, who differ from her Anglo Saxon others, in having come to America direct, instead of via England. We were assured some time since, on good authority, that among the contemplated provisions of the treaty was one which stipulated that a very onerous tax, which is laid by many German governments on the effects of emigrants from home, should not be extended to those emigrating to the United States; thereby securing to us an increased number of them, and that too, from the more wealthy classes. Of this tie of Union, we

can only hint at the excellencies. Like many other admirable features of the rejected treaty, its very existence is matter of doubt, the Senate having hid it, and its evidence of their shame, from the public eye. I. L. K.

Art. II.—COMMERCE OF THE PRAIRIES.

The commercial enterprise of the United States—a feauture so peculiarly national—seems ever to be seeking new avenues for its development; not content with the ample range of its native soil, so exuberant and prolific in almost every species of natural wealth, it seeks not only the navigation of the seas, and the establishment of its marts in the several maritime ports of the civilized globe, but we find also a new class of hardy adventurers, daring the perils of the far-spreading prairies, those "land oceans" of the western world, and penetrating into the very core of our vast continent, hazarding their lives, heedless alike of marauding Indians, and the various hardships and privations incident to such adventurous exploits. An energy of spirit so dauntless and invincible, unparalleled among the nations of the world, if we simply except the elder branches of the great Anglo-Saxon family, may well excite our admiration, and be deemed worthy of all emulation. The commercial achievements of the ancients, the people of Egypt, of Babylon, Palmyra, and other renowned cities of the East, must yield the palm to those of our own times. If the productive wealth of a nation is to be inferred from its mercantile skill and industry, to compute that of the United States, might prove no easy task; and if the prognosis of the future may be predicated from the past, the brilliant successes which, ultimately await us in the destinies of our vast republic, would also supply a theme no less delightful to contemplate, and a problem no less difficult of solution.

The recent appearance of Mr. Gregg's valuable volumes, "*The Commerce of the Prairies,*"* which we have perused with much satisfaction and interest, seems likely to impart a strong impulse to the public mind on the subject of which he treats; and as it falls strictly within the province of our journal, we propose to present our readers with some extracts from his entertaining pages, selecting those items of information most suitable to the character of our work, and which will, of course, prove most acceptable to our readers. Before, however, entering upon the statistics of the Santa Fe trade, it may not be amiss to take a brief glance at some of the interesting details with which his journal abounds. "A tour on the prairies," says our author, is certainly a dangerous experiment for him who would live a quiet contented life among his friends and relations at home; not so dangerous to life or health, as prejudicial to his domestic habits. Those who live pent up in our large cities, know but little of the broad, unembarrassed freedom of the great western prairies. Viewing them from a snug fire-side, they seem crowded with dangers, labors and sufferings; but once upon them, and these appear to vanish and are soon forgotten." So singularly evident was this in the experience of our enthusiastic tourist, that he confesses his passion for prairie-life he never ex-

* Commerce of the Prairies, or the Journal of a Santa Fe trader, during eight expeditions *across the great western Prairies*, and a residence of nearly nine years in Northern *Mexico; with Engravings.* By I. Gregg. 2 vols. New York: Henry G. Langley.

pects to survive; indulging his predilections for the companionship with the mustang and the buffalo, and fraternizing with the little prairie hogs, wild colts, and still wilder Indians, "the unconquered Sabæans" of the desert. It was this fondness for adventurous enterprize that induced Mr. Gregg to repeat his visits to New Mexico, and engage in eight successive trips across the western wilds; while but for the fascinations with which the first inspired him, and which was undertaken with the view of reinstating his impaired health, the pleasant and instructive volumes he has presented us, would have been lost to the world. From his extensive experience, therefore, no less than the scrupulous exactness of his details, Mr. Gregg's statements prefer the highest claims to our consideration. Cradled upon the confines of the prairies, he became familiar with the habits and features of prairie life, added to which, his subsequent intercourse with the traders, among whom he has been long a leading proprietor, and since a resident of about nine years in Santa Fe, are facts which necessarily give to his opinions and observations a high degree of authority. We can scarcely hope to impart to the reader with the freshness and vivid picturesqueness of the original record, a sketch of the incidents and progress of one of these trips; yet for the better appreciation of the subject, we propose to group a few together from his agreeable narrative. Mr. Gregg commences his work with brief historical notices of the progressive development of the Santa Fe trade with the United States, as follows:

"The overland trade between the United States and the northern provinces of Mexico, seems to have had no very definite origin; having been rather the result of accident than of any organized plan of commercial establishment. For a number of years its importance attracted no attention whatever. From Captain Pike's narrative we learn, that one James Pursley, after much wandering over the wild and then unexplored regions west of the Mississippi, finally fell in with some Indians on the Platte river, near its source in the Rocky Mountains; and obtaining information from them respecting the settlements of New Mexico, he set out in company with a party of these savages, and descended, in 1805, to Santa Fe, where he remained for several years—perhaps till his death. It does not appear, however, that he took with him any considerable amount of merchandise.

"Although Captain Pike speaks of Pursley as the first American that ever crossed the desert plains into the Spanish provinces, it is nevertheless related by the same writer, that, in consequence of information obtained by the trappers, through the Indians, relative to this isolated province, a merchant of Kaskaskia, named Morrison, had already dispatched, as early as 1804, a French Creole, by the name of La Lande, up Platte river, with directions to push his way into Santa Fe, if the passage was at all practicable. The ingenious emissary was perfectly successful in his enterprise; but the kind and generous treatment of the natives overcame at once his patriotism and his probity. He neither returned to his employer nor accounted for the proceeds of his adventure. His expansive intellect readily conceived the advantages of setting up in business for himself upon this "borrowed" capital; which he accordingly did, and remained there, not only unmolested, but honored and esteemed till his death, which occurred some fifteen or twenty years afterward—leaving a

large family, and sufficient property to entitle him to the fame of *rico* among his neighbors.

"The Santa Fe trade attracted very little notice, however, until the return of Captain Pike, whose exciting descriptions of the new El Dorado spread like wildfire throughout the western country. In 1812, an expedition was fitted out under the auspices of Messrs. McKnight, Beard, Chambers, and several others, (in all about a dozen,) who, following the directions of Captain Pike across the dreary western wilds, finally succeeded in reaching Santa Fe in safety. But these new adventurers were destined to experience trials and disappointments of which they had formed no conception. Believing that the declaration of Independence by Hidalgo, in 1810, had completely removed those injurious restrictions which had hitherto rendered all foreign intercourse, except by special permission from the Spanish Government, illegal, they were wholly unprepared to encounter the embarrassments with which despotism and tyranny invariably obstruct the path of the stranger. They were doubtless ignorant that the patriotic chief Hidalgo had already been arrested and executed, that the royalists had once more regained the ascendency, and that all foreigners, but particularly Americans, were now viewed with unusual suspicion. The result was that the luckless traders, immediately upon their arrival, were seized as spies, their goods and chattels confiscated, and themselves thrown into the *calabozos* of Chihuahua, where most of them were kept in rigorous confinement for the space of nine years; when the republican forces under Iturbide getting again in the ascendant, McKnight and his comrades were finally set at liberty. It is said that two of the party contrived, early in 1821, to return to the United States in a canoe, which they succeeded in forcing down the Canadian fork of the Arkansas. The stories promulgated by these men soon induced others to launch into the same field of enterprise, among whom was a merchant of Ohio, named Glenn, who, at the time, had an Indian trading-house near the mouth of the Verdigris river. Having taken the circuitous route up the Arkansas towards the mountains, this pioneer trader encountered a great deal of trouble and privation, but eventually reached Santa Fe with his little caravan, before the close of 1821, in perfect safety.

"During the same year, Captain Becknell, of Missouri, with four trusty companions went out to Santa Fe by the far western prairie route. This intrepid little band started from the vicinity of Franklin, with the original purpose of trading with the Iatan or Comanche Indians; but having fallen in accidentally with a party of Mexican rangers, when near the Mountains, they were easily prevailed upon to accompany them to the new emporium, where, notwithstanding the trifling amount of merchandise they were possessed of, they realized a very handsome profit. The fact is, that up to this date New Mexico had derived all her supplies from the Internal Provinces by the way of Vera Cruz; but at such exorbitant rates, that common calicoes, and even bleached and brown domestic goods, sold as high as two and three dollars per *vara* (or Spanish yard of thirty-three inches. Becknell returned to the United States alone the succeeding winter, leaving the rest of his company at Santa Fe.

"The favorable reports brought by the enterprising captain, stimulated others to embark in the trade; and early in the following May, Colonel Cooper *and sons, from the* same neighborhood, accompanied by several *others, (their whole number* about fifteen,) set out with four or five thou-

sand dollars' worth of goods, which they transported upon pack-horses. They steered directly for Taos, where they arrived without any remarkable occurrence.

"The next effort of Captain Becknell was attended with very different success. With a company amounting to near thirty men, and perhaps five thousand dollars' worth of goods of various descriptions, he started from Missouri, about a month after Colonel Cooper. Being an excellent woodsman, and anxious to avoid the circuitous route of the Upper Arkansas country, he resolved this time, after having reached that point on the Arkansas river since known as the "Caches," to steer more directly for Santa Fe, entertaining little or no suspicion of the terrible trials which awaited him across the pathless desert. With no other guide but the starry heavens, and, it may be, a pocket-compass, the party embarked upon the arid plains which extended far and wide before them to the Cimarron river.

"The adventurous band pursued their forward course without being able to procure any water, except from the scanty supply they carried in their canteens. As this source of relief was completely exhausted after two days' march, the sufferings of both men and beasts had driven them almost to distraction. The forlorn band were at last reduced to the cruel necessity of killing their dogs, and cutting off the ears of their mules, in the vain hope of assuaging their burning thirst with the hot blood. This only served to irritate the parched palates, and madden the senses of the sufferers. Frantic with despair, in prospect of the horrible death which now stared them in the face, they scattered in every direction in search of that element which they had left behind them in such abundance, but without success.

"Frequently led astray by the deceptive glimmer of the mirage, or false ponds, as those treacherous oases of the desert are called, and not suspecting (as was really the case) that they had already arrived near the banks of the Cimarron, they resolved to retrace their steps to the Arkansas. But they now were no longer equal to the task, and would undoubtedly have perished in those arid regions, had not a buffalo, fresh from the river's side, and with a stomach distended with water, been discovered by some of the party, just as the last rays of hope were receding from their vision. The hapless intruder was immediately dispatched, and an invigorating draught procured from its stomach. I have since heard one of the parties to that expedition declare, that nothing ever passed his lips which gave him such exquisite delight as his first draught of that filthy beverage.

"This providential relief enabled some of the strongest men of the party to reach the river, where they filled their canteens, and then hurried back to the assistance of their comrades, many of whom they found prostrate on the ground, and incapable of further exertion. By degrees, however, they were all enabled to resume their journey; and following the course of the Arkansas for several days, thereby avoiding the arid regions which had occasioned them so much suffering, they succeeded in reaching Taos, (sixty or seventy miles north of Santa Fe,) without further difficulty. Although travellers have since suffered excessively with thirst upon the same desert, yet, having become better acquainted with the topography of the country, no other equally thrilling incidents have subsequently transpired.

"It is from this period—the year 1822—that the virtual commence-

ment of the Santa Fe Trade may be dated. The next remarkable era in its history is the first attempt to introduce wagons in these expeditions. This was made in 1824 by a company of traders, about eighty in number, among whom were several gentlemen of intelligence from Missouri, who contributed, by their superior skill and undaunted energy, to render the enterprise completely successful. A portion of this company employed pack mules: among the rest were owned twenty-five wheeled vehicles, of which one or two were stout road-wagons, two were carts, and the rest Dearborn carriages—the whole conveying some $25,000 or $30,000 worth of merchandise. Colonel Marmaduke, the present lieutenant governor of Missouri, having formed one of the party, has been pleased to place his diary of that eventful journey at my disposal; but want of space necessarily compels me to pass over the many interesting and exciting incidents which it contains. Suffice it to say, that the caravan reached Santa Fe with much less difficulty than must have been anticipated from a first experiment with wheeled vehicles. The route, indeed, appears to have presented fewer obstacles than any ordinary road of equal length in the United States.

"It was not until several years after this experiment, however, that adventurers, with large capital, began seriously to embark in the Santa Fe trade. The early traders having but seldom experienced any molestations from the Indians, generally crossed the plains in detached bands, each individual rarely carrying more than two or three hundred dollars' worth of stock. This peaceful season, however, did not last very long; and it is greatly to be feared that the traders were not always innocent of having instigated the savage hostilities that ensued in after years. Many seemed to forget the wholesome precept, that they should not be savages themselves because they dealt with savages. Instead of cultivating friendly feelings with those few who remained peaceful and honest, there was an occasional one always disposed to kill, even in cold blood, every Indian that fell into their power, merely because some of the tribe had committed some outrage either against themselves or their friends.

"Since the commencement of this trade, returning parties have performed the homeward journey across the plains with the proceeds of their enterprise, partly in specie, and partly in furs, buffalo rugs and animals. Occasionally, these straggling bands would be set upon by marauding Indians, but if well armed and of resolute spirit, they found very little difficulty in persuading the savages to let them pass unmolested; for, as Mr. Storrs very justly remarks, in his representation presented by Colonel Benton, in 1825, to the United States Senate, the Indians are always willing to compromise when they find that they cannot rob 'without losing the lives of their warriors, which they hardly ever risk, unless for revenge or in open warfare.'

"The case was very different with those who through carelessness or recklessness ventured upon the wild prairies without a sufficient supply of arms. A story is told of a small band of twelve men, who, while encamped on the Cimarron river, in 1826, with but four serviceable guns between them, were visited by a party of Indians (believed to be Arrapahoes,) who made at first strong demonstrations of friendship and good will. Observing the defenceless condition of the traders, they went away, but soon returned about thirty strong, each provided with a lazo *and all on foot. The chief* then began by informing the Americans that

his men were tired of walking, and must have horses. Thinking it folly to offer any resistance, the terrified traders told them if one animal apiece would satisfy them, to go and catch them. This they soon did; but finding their requests so easily complied with, the Indians held a little parley together, which resulted in a new demand for more—they must have two apiece. 'Well, catch them!' was the acquiescent reply of the unfortunate band—upon which the savages mounted those they had already secured, and, swinging their lazos over their heads, plunged among the stock with a furious yell, and drove off the entire *caballada* of nearly five hundred head of horses, mules and asses.

"The fall of 1828 proved still more fatal to the traders on their homeward trip; for by this time the Indians had learned to form a correct estimate of the stock with which the return companies were generally provided. Two young men named McNees and Monroe, having carelessly lain down to sleep on the banks of a stream, since known as McNees's creek, were barbarously shot, with their own guns, as it was supposed, in very sight of the caravan. When their comrades came up, they found McNees lifeless, and the other almost expiring. In this state the latter was carried nearly forty miles to the Cimarron river, where he died, and was buried according to the custom of the Prairies.*

"Just as the funeral ceremonies were about to be concluded, six or seven Indians appeared on the opposite side of the Cimarron. Some of the party proposed inviting them to a parley, while the rest, burning for revenge, evinced a desire to fire upon them at once. It is more than probable, however, that the Indians were not only innocent but ignorant of the outrage that had been committed, or they would hardly have ventured to approach the caravan. Being quick of perception, they very soon saw the belligerent attitude assumed by some of the company, and therefore wheeled round and attempted to escape. One shot was fired, which wounded a horse and brought the Indian to the ground, when he was instantly riddled with balls! Almost simultaneously another discharge of several guns followed, by which all the rest were either killed or mortally wounded, except one, who escaped to bear to his tribe the news of their dreadful catastrophe!

"These wanton cruelties had a most disastrous effect upon the prospects of the trade; for the exasperated children of the desert became more and more hostile to the 'pale faces,' against whom they continued to wage a cruel war for many successive years. In fact, this same party suffered very severely a few days afterwards. They were pursued by the enraged comrades of the slain savages to the Arkansas river, where they were robbed of nearly a thousand head of mules and horses. But the Indians were not yet satisfied. Having beset a company of about twenty men, who followed shortly after—they killed one of their number, and subsequently took from them all the animals they had in their possession. The unfortunate band were now not only compelled to advance on foot, but were even constrained to carry nearly a thousand dollars each upon their backs to the Arkansas river, where it was *cached*, (concealed in the

* These funerals are usually performed in a very summary manner. A grave is dug in a convenient spot, and the corpse, with no other shroud than its own clothes, and only a blanket for a coffin, is consigned to the earth. The grave is then usually filled up with stones or poles, as a safe-guard against the voracious wolves of the prairies.

ground,) till a conveyance was procured to transfer it to the United States.

"Such repeated and daring outrages induced the traders to petition the federal government for an escort of United States troops. The request having been granted, Major Riley, with three companies of infantry and one of riflemen, was ordered to accompany the caravan which left in the spring of 1829, as far as Chouteau's Island on the Arkansas river. Here the escort stopped, and the traders pursued their journey through the sand-hills beyond. They had hardly advanced six or seven miles, when a startling incident occurred which made them wish once more for the company of the gallant Major and his well-disciplined troops. A vanguard of three men, riding a few hundred yards ahead, had just dismounted for the purpose of satisfying their thirst, when a band of Kiawas, one of the most savage tribes that infest the western prairies, rushed upon them from the immense hillocks of sand which lay scattered in all directions. The three men sprang upon their animals, but two only who had horses were enabled to make their escape to the wagons; the third, a Mr. Lamme, who was unfortunately mounted upon a mule, was overtaken, slain and scalped before any one could come to his assistance. Somewhat alarmed at the boldness of the Indians, the traders dispatched an express to Major Riley, who immediately ordered his tents to be struck; and such was the rapidity of his movements, that when he appeared before the anxious caravan, every one was lost in astonishment. The reinforcement having arrived in the night, the enemy could have obtained no knowledge of the fact, and would no doubt have renewed the attack in the morning, when they would have received a wholesome lesson from the troops, had not the *reveille* been sounded through mistake, at which they precipitately retreated. The escort now continued with the company as far as Sand creek, when, perceiving no further signs of danger, they returned to the Arkansas, to await the return of the caravan in the ensuing fall.

"The position of Major Riley, on the Arkansas, was one of serious and continual danger. Scarce a day passed without his being subjected to some new annoyance from predatory Indians. The latter appeared, indeed, resolved to check all further concourse of the whites upon the prairies; and fearful of the terrible extremes to which their excesses might be carried, the traders continued to unite in single caravans during many years afterwards, for the sake of mutual protection. This escort under Major Riley, and one composed of about sixty dragoons, commanded by Captain Wharton, in 1834, constituted the only government protection ever afforded to the Santa Fe trade, until 1843, when large escorts under Captain Cook accompanied two different caravans as far as the Arkansas river."

Himself a valetudinarian, as already stated, our author had ample opportunities for testing the beneficial effects of the salubrious atmosphere of the prairies; which, together with the peculiarities of diet incident to prairie life and its regular exercise in the open air, effectually tended to reinstate his health; so that the "commerce of the prairies" offers other immunities beside those of large pecuniary emolument. The established post of debarkation is the town of Independence, situate about a dozen miles from the *Indian* border, and two or three south of the Missouri *river. The caravans* generally start in the month of May; the ordinary *supplies for each person* are usually as follows: about fifty pounds of flour

as many of bacon, ten of coffee, and twenty of sugar, with a little salt, crackers, beans, &c.; the plentiful herds of buffalo to be met with throughout the journey affording an ample supply of fresh meat. The wagons are drawn by eight mules, or oxen, the former being now generally preferred on many accounts to the horse, except when occasionally used for hunting in the chase. Oxen have been found to retain their strength far beyond the mules in these expeditions, especially when they had to pass through muddy or sandy places, yet they fail when the grass becomes drier and shorter, and on this account, mules have been after all generally employed. It is usual for the traders at first to move off in detached parties, till they reach Council Grove, about ten days' journey, the rendezvous where they become organized into a general body or *caravan* for their mutual defence and security during the remainder of their journey. Travellers suffer more loss and annoyance from the straying of cattle during the first hundred miles, from the neglect in properly looking after them, than at any subsequent period; the frequent surprisals of the Indians rendering greater vigilance, in this respect, afterwards indispensably necessary. After leaving Council Grove, not a single human habitation—not even an Indian wigwam, it seems, greets the vision of the prairie adventurer. The name given to this spot is stated by Mr. Gregg to have resulted from the stipulated payment of some eight hundred dollars, in merchandize, having been paid to some bands of the Osages, in 1825, by the United States commissioners, Reeves, Sibley and Mathas, for ensuring the suspension of hostile invasion of these wild "sons of the soil" upon the traders to Santa Fe. Having entered the name of every member of the company, with the number of wagons, &c., and elected a captain for the command, with a lieutenant to its several divisions—a precaution essentially requisite, as these expeditions frequently number one hundred wagons, and a corresponding complement of men with their rifles, including some small mounted cannons, they proceed upon their travel, at the exhilarating cry "all's set," "catch up." They meet with buffalo and Indian in about the same latitude, but their welcome for the former is far more enthusiastic and sincere, for their stomachs' sake, than the latter, dauntless as they sometimes show themselves on the approach of the "ferocious foe." After a few encounters with the Indians, the party were surprised by the appearance of the grizzly bear, about which such exaggerated stories have been given by travellers. One of the company, a giant blacksmith, and general repairer of wagons, named Campbell, and who was, in short, the most appropriate subject for a regular grizzly-bear scrape, had laid himself down upon the shade of a bush, upon the brink of a precipice about ten feet high, was taking a comfortable snooze, while his companions were sporting in the neighborhood. During the chase, one of the young bears, which had been scared from its mother, was perceived loping down the trail towards the camp, apparently heedless of the company. Several of them seized their guns, and as it sprang across the ravine through a break near the spot where Campbell lay, they gave it a salute, which caused it to tumble back wounded into the branch, with a frightful yell. Campbell, being suddenly roused by the noise, says the narrator, started up with the rapidity of lightning, and tumbled over the precipice upon the bear. "Whaugh!" growled master bruin—"Murder!" screamed the giant—"Clinch it, Campbell, or you're gone!" exclaimed his comrades; for no one could venture to shoot for fear of kill-

ing the man. The latter, however, had no notion of closing clutches with his long-clawed antagonist, but busied himself in vain attempts to clamber up the steep bank; while the bear rising upon his hinder legs, and staring a moment at the huge frame of the blacksmith, soon made up his mind as to the expediency of "turning tail," and finally succeeded in making his escape, notwithstanding a volley of shot that were fired after him.

Mr. Gregg alludes more than once to those singular animals, the prairie-dog, and their habits of colonization. The prairie-dog bears some affinity with the marmot, especially so in their torpidity during winter; a collection of their burrows, in some cases extending over an area of several square miles, and amounting to some thousands in the same vicinity, has been not inaptly termed by travellers, "a dog-town." They seem to be remarkably social and domestic in their habits. "Approaching a village," says our author, "the little creatures may be observed frisking about the 'streets,' passing from one domicil to another, apparently on visits—sometimes a few clustered together as though in council—others brushing the little hillock about the door, or cleansing their 'houses'—but all quiet, except when a stranger approaches; when each streaks it to his home, while by shrill yelps they convey the note of alarm to the whole neighborhood. This done, they dart down into their deep burrows and are seen no more till the cause of their consternation has seemed to have disappeared." But to return to those portions of the work of a strictly commercial character; we shall subjoin the continuation of Mr. Gregg's statements on this subject.

"The Santa Fe trade, though more or less fluctuating from its origin, continued to present an average increase and growth down to the year 1831. During the same period, the prices of goods continued to go down in even a more rapid ratio. Since 1831, the rates of sales have continued steadily to fall to the latest period of the trade, although there has been no average increase in the number of adventurers, or amount of merchandise."

Some general statistics of the Santa Fe trade may prove not wholly without interest to the mercantile reader. With this view, Mr. Gregg prepared the following table of the probable amounts of merchandize invested in the Santa Fe trade, from 1822 to 1843 inclusive, and about the portion of the same transferred to the Southern markets (chiefly Chihuahua) during the same period; together with the approximate number of wagons, men and proprietors engaged each year. The table is not given as perfectly accurate, yet it is believed to be about as nearly so as any that could be made out at the present day. The column marked "Pro's." (Proprietors,) though even less precise than the other statistics, presents about the proportion of the whole number engaged each year who were owners. At first, as will be seen, almost every individual of each caravan was a proprietor, while of late the capital has been held by comparatively few hands. In 1843, the greater portion of the traders were New Mexicans, several of whom, during the three years previous, had embarked in this trade, of which they bid fair to secure a monopoly. The amount of merchandize transported to Santa Fe each year, is set down at its probable *cost in the* Eastern cities of the United States. Besides *freights and insurance to* Independence, there has been an annual investment, *averaging nearly* twenty-five per cent upon the cost of the stocks

in wagons, teams, provisions, hire of hands, &c., for transportation across the prairies. A large portion of this remaining unconsumed, however, the ultimate loss on the outfit has not been more than half of the above amount. Instead of purchasing outfit, some traders prefer employing freighters, a number of whom are usually to be found on the frontier of Missouri, ready to transport goods to Santa Fe, at ten to twelve cents per pound. From thence to Chihuahua the price of freights is six to eight cents, upon mules, or in wagons. The average gross returns of the traders has rarely exceeded fifty per cent upon the cost of their merchandise, leaving a net profit of between twenty and forty per cent; though their profits have not unfrequently been under ten per cent; in fact, as has before been mentioned, their adventures have sometimes been losing speculations.

Years.	Amt. Mdse.	W'g's.	Men.	Pro's.	T'n to Ch'a.	Remarks.
1822,.....	15,000	....	70	60	.....	Pack animals only used.
1823,.....	12,000	....	50	30	.....	" "
1824,.....	35,000	26	100	80	3,000	" and wag'ns.
1825,.....	65,000	37	130	90	5,000	" "
1826,.....	90,000	60	100	70	7,000	Wag'ns only, henceforth.
1827,.....	85,000	55	90	50	8,000	
1828,.....	150,000	100	200	80	20,000	3 men killed—(the first.)
1829,.....	60,000	30	50	20	5,000	1st U. S. Es., 1 trader k'd.
1830,.....	120,000	70	140	60	20,000	First ox'n used by traders.
1831,.....	250,000	130	320	80	80,000	Two men killed.
1832,.....	140,000	70	150	40	50,000	Party def'd on Canadian,
1833,.....	180,000	105	185	60	80,000	2 men killed, 3 perished.
1834,.....	150,000	80	160	50	70,000	2d U. S. Escort.
1835,.....	140,000	75	140	40	70,000	
1836,.....	130,000	70	135	35	60,000	
1837,.....	150,000	80	160	35	80,000	
1838,.....	90,000	50	100	20	40,000	
1839,.....	250,000	130	250	40	100,000	Arkansas expedition.
1840,.....	50,000	30	60	5	10,000	Chihuahua "
1841,.....	150,000	60	100	12	80,000	Texas Santa Fe exped.
1842,.....	160,000	70	120	15	90,000	
1843,.....	450,000	230	350	30	300,000	3d U. S. Es., ports closed.

"From 1831 to the present date, prices have scarcely averaged, for medium calicoes, thirty-seven cents, and for plain domestic cottons thirty-one cents per yard. Taking assortments round, 100 per cent upon United States costs were generally considered excellent sales: many stocks have been sold at a still lower rate. The average prices of Chihuahua are equally low, yet a brisker demand has rendered this the most agreeable and profitable branch of the trade.

"The first attempt to introduce American goods into the more southern markets of Mexico from Santa Fe, was made in the year 1824. The amounts were very small, however, till towards the year 1831. For a few of the first years, the traders were in the habit of conveying small lots to Sonora and California; but this branch of the trade has, I believe, latterly ceased altogether. Yet the amounts transferred to Chihuahua have generally increased; so that for the last few years, that trade has consumed very nearly half of the entire imports by the Missouri caravans.

"The entire consumption of foreign goods in the department of Chihuahua, has been estimated, by intelligent Mexican merchants, at from two to three millions annually; the first cost of which might be set down at nearly one half. Of this amount the Santa Fe trade, as will be seen

from the accompanying table, has not furnished a tenth part; the balance being introduced through other ports, viz.: Matamoros, whence Chihuahua has received nearly half its supplies—Vera Cruz via the city of Mexico, whence considerable amounts have been brought to this department —Tampico, on the Gulf of Mexico, and Mazatlan, on the Pacific, via Durango, whence the imports have been of some importance—while nearly all the west of the department, and especially the heavy consumption of the mining town of Jesus-Maria, receives most of its supplies from the port of Guaymas on the Gulf of California; whence, indeed, several stocks of goods have been introduced as far as the city of Chihuahua itself. In 1840, a large amount of merchandize was transported directly from the Red River frontier of Arkansas to Chihuahua; but no other expedition has ever been made in that direction.

"By far the greatest portion of the introductions through the sea-ports, just alluded to, have been made by British merchants. It is chiefly the preference given to American manufactures, which has enabled the merchandise of the Santa Fe adventurers to compete in the Southern markets, with goods introduced through the sea-ports, which have had the benefit of the draw-back. In this last respect our traders have labored under a very unjust burden.

"It is difficult to conceive any equitable reason why merchants, conveying their goods across the prairies in wagons, should not be as much entitled to the protection of the government, as those who transport them in vessels across the ocean. This assistance might have enabled our merchants to monopolize the rich trade of Chihuahua; and they would, no doubt, have obtained a share of that of the still richer departments of Durango and Zacatecas, as well as some portion of the Sonora and California trade. Then rating that of Chihuahua at two millions, half that of Durango at the same, and a million from Zacatecas, Sonora, etc., it would ascend to the clever amount of some five millions of dollars per annum.

"In point of revenue, the Santa Fe trade has been of but little importance to the government of Mexico. Though the amount of duties collected annually at this port has usually been fifty to eighty thousand dollars, yet nearly one-half has been embezzled by the officers of the customs, leaving an average net revenue of perhaps less than forty thousand dollars per annum.

"It is not an unimportant fact to be known, that, since the year 1831, few or none of the difficulties and dangers which once environed the Santa Fe adventurer have been encountered. No traders have been killed by the savages on the regular route, and but few animals stolen from the caravans. On the whole, the rates of insurance upon adventures in this trade should hardly be as high as upon marine adventures between New York and Liverpool. While I declare, however, the serious dangers and troubles to have been in general so slight, I ought not to suppress at least an outline of the difficulties that occurred on the prairies in 1843, which were attended with very serious consequences.

"It had been reported in Santa Fe as early as November, 1842, that a party of Texans were upon the prairies, prepared to attack any Mexican traders who should cross the plains the succeeding spring; and as some *Americans were accused of* being spies, and in collusion with the Texans, *many were ordered to* Santa Fe for examination, occasioning a deal

of trouble to several innocent persons. Than this, however, but little further attention was paid to the report, many believing it but another of those rumors of Texan invasion which had so often spread useless consternation through the country.

"So little apprehension appeared to exist, that, in February, 1843, Don Antonio Jose Chavez, of New Mexico, left Santa Fe for Independence, with but five servants, two wagons, and fifty-five mules. He had with him some ten or twelve thousand dollars in specie and gold bullion, besides a small lot of furs. As the month of March was extremely inclement, the little party suffered inconceivably from cold and privations. Most of them were frost-bitten, and all their animals, except five, perished from the extreme severity of the season; on which account Chavez was compelled to leave one of his wagons upon the prairies. He had worried along, however, with his remaining wagon and valuables, till about the tenth of April, when he found himself near the Little Arkansas, at least a hundred miles within the territory of the United States. He was there met by fifteen men from the border of Missouri, professing to be Texan troops, under the command of one John M'Daniel. This party had been collected, for the most part, on the frontier, by their leader, who was recently from Texas, from which government he professed to hold a captain's commission. They started no doubt with the intention of joining one Col. Warfield, (also said to hold a Texan commission,) who had been upon the plains near the mountains, with a small party, for several months, with the avowed intention of attacking the Mexican traders.

"Upon meeting Chavez, however, the party of M'Daniel at once determined to make sure of the prize he was possessed of, rather than take their chances of a similar booty beyond the United States boundary. The unfortunate Mexican was therefore taken a few miles south of the road, and his baggage rifled. Seven of the party then left for the settlements with their share of the booty, amounting to some four or five hundred dollars apiece, making the journey on foot, as their horses had taken a *stampede* and escaped. The remaining eight, soon after the departure of their comrades, determined to put Chavez to death,—for what cause it would seem difficult to conjecture, as he had been for two days, their unresisting prisoner. Lots were accordingly cast to determine which four of the party should be the cruel executioners; and their wretched victim was taken off a few rods and shot down in cold blood. After his murder, a considerable amount of gold was found about his person, and in his trunk. The body of the unfortunate man, together with his wagon and baggage, was thrown into a neighboring ravine; and a few of the lost animals of the marauders having been found, their booty was packed upon them and borne away to the frontier of Missouri.

"Great exertions had been made to intercept this lawless band at the outset; but they escaped the vigilance even of a detachment of dragoons that had followed them over a hundred miles. Yet the honest citizens of the border were too much on the alert to permit them to return with impunity. However, five of the whole number (including three of the party that killed the man) effected their escape, but the other ten were arrested, committed, and sent to St. Louis for trial before the United States Court. It appears that those who were engaged in the killing of Chavez have

since been convicted of murder; and the others, who were concerned in the robbery, were found guilty."

We have thus far implicitly followed the narrative from Mr. Gregg's pen; for brevity's sake, we must omit his details of Col. Snively's organized company of 175 men, who about the same year falling in with others equipped for the like object under Colonel Warfield, commenced an attack on Mora, a village on the Mexican frontier. These men were soon seriously worsted by the Mexicans and disbanded. They were, as it is well known, soon followed by other expeditions, which derived no unimportant aid from some of our American citizens; and the final result of which has lately caused so much political discussion throughout the United States.

"But the most unfortunate circumstance attending this invasion of the prairies—unfortunate at least to the United States and to New Mexico—was the closing of the northern ports to foreign commerce, which was doubtless, to a great degree, a consequence of the before-mentioned expedition, and which of course terminated the Santa Fe trade, at least for the present.*

"I am of the impression, however, that little apprehension need be entertained, that this decree of Gen. Santa Anna will be permitted much longer to continue, unless our peaceful relations with Mexico should be disturbed; an event, under any circumstances, seriously to be deprecated. With the continuation of peace between us, the Mexicans will certainly be compelled to open their northern frontier ports, to avoid a revolution in New Mexico, with which they are continually threatened while this embargo continues. Should the obnoxious decree be repealed, the Santa Fe Trade will doubtless be prosecuted again with renewed vigor and enterprize."

The features of character ascribed to the inhabitants of New Mexico are far from flattering to their vanity: indolent, intolerant, systematically cringing, they have no stability except in artifice, no profundity except for intrigue. The mal-administration of the laws seems to be another impediment to their harmonious commercial intercourse with the traders from the United States. A strong feeling of jealousy is also observable towards the American traders, as the following anecdotes illustrative of the summary mode of dealing with them by the present arbitrary governor Armijo.

In the fall of 1840, a gross outrage was committed upon a physician from Massachusetts. He loaned a person of the name of Tayon, $900, who afterwards borrowed the amount from another foreigner, in order to repay the former; but the individual who had lent Tayon learning that he was insolvent, applied, and speedily obtained an order from Armijo for

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* The following is the substance of Santa Anna's decree, dated at his Palace of Tacubaya, August 7, 1843:

"Article 1st. The frontier custom-houses of Taos, in the department of New Mexico, Paso del Norte and Presidio del Norte in that of Chihuahua, are entirely closed to all commerce.

"Article 2d. This decree shall take effect within forty-five days after its publication in the capital of the Republic."

It should be understood that the only port in New Mexico for foreign goods was nominally Taos, *though the custom house* was at Santa Fe, where all the entrances were *made.*

compelling the doctor to refund the said amount. He had left for the south, meanwhile, but was presently overtaken, and at once arrested by the alcade, in a most unceremonious manner, and imprisoned till a counter order could be obtained from the American consul. The former, however, determined to revenge himself, and he accordingly succeeded in obtaining a further summons from the governor, and the only escape the worthy doctor had was by purchasing his liberty with a bribe of $200!

"But, perhaps, the most glaring outrages upon American citizens were committed in 1841, upon the occasion of the capture of the Texan Santa Fe expedition. In Taos, a poor deaf and dumb United States creole Frenchman was beaten to death in open day. In San Miguel, the alcalde, at the head of a mob, entered the store of a Mr. Rowland, whom he robbed of a considerable amount of merchandise. At the same time, the greatest excitement raged in Santa Fe against Americans, whose lives appeared in imminent danger; and a most savage attack was made upon our excellent consul, Manuel Alvarez, Esq., who had always taken an active interest in the welfare of American citizens.

"A few minutes after the governor had departed for San Miguel, to encounter the Texans, a fellow named Martin, his nephew and confidential agent, aided by a band of ferocious *sans culottes*, and armed with a large knife, secretly entered the house of the consul, who perceived him in time, however, to avert the blow; yet he received a severe wound in the face during the scuffle that ensued: the rabble running in at the same time, and vociferating, "*Saquenlo afuera! matenlo!*"—Drag him out! kill him! Mr. Alvarez, doubtless, owed his preservation partially to the consternation with which the failure of their clandestine attempt at his life inspired the cowardly ruffians. Instead of being punished for this diabolical act, the principal assassin, on the contrary, was soon after promoted in the army.

"The outrage did not end here, however; for, on the consul's demanding his passport for the United States, it was refused for nearly a month; thus detaining him until the cold season had so far advanced, that, of his party, (about fifteen in number,) two perished from the cold; and not one arrived without being more or less frost-bitten—some very severely—besides suffering a loss of about fifty animals from the same cause.

"Although these, and other daring outrages, have been duly represented to our government, it does not appear that any measures of redress have yet been taken.

"With a view of oppressing our merchants, Governor Armijo had, as early as 1839, issued a decree exempting all the natives from the tax imposed on store-houses, shops, etc., throwing the whole burden of impost upon foreigners and naturalized citizens; a measure clearly and unequivocally at variance with the treaties and stipulations entered into between the United States and Mexico. A protest was presented, without effect; when our consul, finding all remonstrances useless, forwarded a memorial to the American minister at Mexico; who, although the vital interests of American citizens were at stake, deemed the affair of too little importance, perhaps, and therefore appears to have paid no attention to it. But this system of levying excessive taxes upon foreigners, is by no means an original invention of Governor Armijo. In 1835, the government of Chihuahua having levied a contribucion de guerra for raising means to make war upon the savages, who were laying waste the surrounding country, foreign merchants, with an equal disregard for their rights and the obli-

gations of treaties, were taxed twenty-five dollars each per month; while the native merchants, many of whom possessed large haciendas, with thousands of stock, for the especial protection of which these taxes were chiefly imposed, paid only from five to ten dollars each. Remonstrances were presented to the governor, but in vain.

"For a few years, Governor Armijo established a tariff of *his own*, entirely arbitrary, exacting five hundred dollars for each wagon-load, whether large or small, of fine or coarse goods. Of course, this was very advantageous to such traders as had large wagons and costly assortments, while it was no less onerous to those with smaller vehicles, or coarse, heavy goods. As might have been anticipated, the traders soon took to conveying their merchandise only in the largest wagons, drawn by ten or twelve mules, and omitting the coarser and more weighty articles of trade. This caused the governor to return to an *ad valorem* system, though still without regard to the *Arancel general* of the nation. How much of these duties found their way into the public treasury, I will not venture to assert.

"The arrival of a caravan at Santa Fe changes the aspect of the place at once. Instead of the idleness and stagnation which its streets exhibited before, one now sees everywhere the bustle, noise, and activity of a lively market town. As the Mexicans very rarely speak English, the negotiations are mostly conducted in Spanish.

"Taking the circuit of the stores, I found they usually contained general assortments, much like those to be met with in the retail variety stores of the west. The stocks of the inexperienced merchants are apt to abound in unsaleable goods—*mulas*, as the Mexicans figuratively term them.

"Although a fair variety of dry-goods, silks, hardware, &c., is to be found in this market, domestic cottons, both bleached and brown, constitute the great staple, of which nearly equal quantities ought to enter into a 'Santa Fe assortment.' The demand for these goods is such, that at least one-half of our stocks of merchandise is made up of them. However, although they afford a greater nominal per centum than many other articles, the profits are reduced by their freight and heavy duty. In all the southern markets, where they enter into competition, there is a decided preference given to the American manufactures over the British, as the former are more heavy and durable. The demand for calicoes is also considerable, but this kind of goods affords much less profit. The quantity in an assortment should be about equal to half that of domestics. Cotton velvets and drillings, (whether bleached, brown, or blue, and especially the latter, have also been in much request. But all the coarser cotton goods, whether shirtings, calicoes, or drillings, &c., were prohibited by the *Arancel* of 1837, and still continue to be, with some modifications."

Our paper already transcends the limits we had prescribed, or we might cite much additional information relating to the geographical peculiarities of Santa Fe; the customs of its inhabitants, &c. A word or two touching its manufactures, and agricultural produce, must, however, suffice. The valley of the Rio del Norte, extending about 100 miles north, and 150 south of the capital named, seems remarkable for its beauty, richness of produce, and diversity of soil. Whatever is thrown into its bosom, says our writer, if the early autumn frosts permits it to ripen, grows to a wonderful degree of perfection—crops have often yielded over a hundred fold. This *exuberance of soil is not*, however, common to New Mexico, *generally, but rather proper to its* valleys. The temperature is uniformly

genial and moderate—a sultry day at Santa Fe north, is of rare occurrence. The atmosphere is of extraordinary dryness, owing most probably to the great elevation of the plains about the Rocky mountains.

Cotton is but little cultivated here, although it has been considered indigenous to the country, the early manufactures of the aborigines proving the fact, especially in this province. Tobacco is also a native plant; but, owing to the monopolizing influence of the government, its culture is not deemed worthy of much notice by the inhabitants. Flax is likewise entirely neglected, as also the potato, another indigenous plant.

The New Mexicans are celebrated for the manufacture of coarse blankets, which is an article of considerable traffic between them and the southern provinces, as also with the neighboring Indians; and, on some occasions, with the United States. The finer articles are curiously woven in handsome figures of various colors. These are of different qualities, the most ordinary being valued at about two dollars apiece, while those of the finest texture, especially their imitations of the *Sarape Navajo*, will sell for twenty dollars, or more. There have been also made in New Mexico a few imitations of the *Sarape Saltillero*, the blanket of Saltillo, a city of the south, celebrated for the manufacture of the most splendid fancy blankets, singularly figured with all the colors of the rainbow. These are often sold for more than fifty dollars each. What renders the weaving of the fancy blankets extremely tedious, is, that the variegation of colors is all effected with the shuttle; the texture, in other respects, being perfectly plain, without even a twill. An additional value is set upon the fine *sarape*, on account of its being a fashionable substitute for a cloak. Indeed, the inferior sarape is the only over-dress used by the peasantry in the winter.

Besides blankets, the New Mexicans manufacture a kind of coarse twilled woollen stuff, called *gerga*, which is checkered with black and white, and is used for carpets, and also by the peasantry for clothing; which, in fact, with some other similar domestic stuffs, together with buckskin, constituted almost the only article of wear they were possessed of, till the trade from Missouri furnished them with foreign fabrics at more reasonable prices than they had been in the habit of paying to the traders of the southern provinces. Their domestic textures are nearly all of wool, there being no flax or hemp,* and but little cotton spun. The manufacture even of these articles is greatly embarrassed, for want of good spinning and weaving machinery. Much of the spinning is done with the *huso* or *malacate*, (the whirligig spindle,) which is kept whirling in a bowl with the fingers, while the thread is drawn. The dexterity with which the females spin with this simple apparatus, is truly astonishing.

Some of the gold mines of New Mexico are said to be very productive and valuable, although latterly, Mr. Gregg seems to think, they have been partially neglected. We must, however, in conclusion, content ourselves with one more brief extract, remarkable enough for its development of an

* Hemp is unknown in this province; and flax, as has been before remarked, though indigenous, is nowhere cultivated. "The court of Spain, (as Clavigero tells us, speaking of Michuacan, New Mexico, and Quivira, where he says flax was to be found in great abundance,) informed of the regions adapted to the cultivation of this plant, sent to those countries, about the year 1778, twelve families from the valley of Granada, for the purpose of promoting so important a branch of agriculture." The enterprise seems never to have been prosecuted, however, at least in New Mexico.

nomalous feature of character among a people trading with the civilized ations of Europe, as well as our own continent, respecting their mode of rmerly apportioning the rates of duties. Says Mr. Gregg, "I have heard some still more curious contracts in these measurement sales, particularly Santa Fe, during the early periods of the American trade. Everything as sometimes rated by the vara—not only all textures, but even hats, rtlery, trinkets, and so on! In such cases, very singular disputes would equently arise as to the mode of measuring some particular articles; for istance, whether pieces of ribbon should be measured in bulk, or unolled, and yard by yard; looking-glasses, cross or lengthwise; pocketnives, shut or open; writing paper, in the ream, in the quire, or by the ngle sheet; and then, whether the longer or shorter way of the paper; nd many others."

As it may not be generally known to our readers, we will close with a dicrous recital given of the mode adopted by the Cherokees for the vitation of non-paying debtors. One of the party, engaged as a teamster, eing overtaken by his Cherokee creditor, whose claim he was utterly nable to liquidate, found he had no alternative left him but to take the enefit of the bankrupt law, after the manner of that tribe. He was acordingly taken off into captivity of his claimant, and compelled to undero the infliction of a penalty as summary, if not as sanguinary, as that of udge Lynch. It consisted in being reduced to a primitive state of nudity, nd fastened to a tree; when each creditor was called upon to requite his rfeited engagement with a cowhide or hickory switch, scoring the amount f his respective claim in legible lines upon his bare back—one stripe er dollar being the ratio usually imposed under this novel system of hitewashing; after which process being concluded, everybody declares imself satisfied;—and, what is no less singular, not a single red cent ould any receive from the poor delinquent, after this *amende honorable*, nder any pretence whatever.

Art. III—THE COTTON TRADE.

In an article prepared for the Merchants' Magazine about a year since, e writer of this insisted very strongly on the speculative character of the rices of cotton at that time. Estimates of the crop of the United States, nd of the supply from other parts of the world, and of the consumption oth in this country and in Europe, were at the same time submitted, and e agreement of all these with the results since developed, has been sufciently near to induce another attempt for the present cotton season. As ese estimates are based on the statistics of the cotton trade, and not on e mere opinions of the writer, every one interested in the subject may dge for himself what they are worth. The importance of the subject, oth to the southern planter and to the mercantile interests of the whole ountry, will justify any attempts of this kind, even if they only approach wards accuracy.

The first question of importance relates to the extent of the supply. he crop in the United States promises to be very abundant. In Carona, more land was planted than usual, the season has been very favora*le for maturing the plant*, and thus far, (Oct. 10,) the weather has been

very propitious for picking. The drought in the upper part of the state in August and September, has been the only drawback to a most abundant crop. As it is, the receipts will probably exceed those of any previous year. The same remarks will apply to Georgia. These states have lost but little by emigration in the last year or two, and the natural increase of producers will tend considerably to enhance the crop. The receipts in Florida will far exceed those of any previous year. The new lands brought into cultivation in that territory, and along the Chatahoochee, promise large additions to the production. The seasons have been generally favorable. At some places they have complained of too much rain, and at others of too little, but these complaints have not been serious. The plant is forward, and the picking began very early. Many planters will make as much as they can pick out, and a long season for gathering the crop is therefore very favorable to a large yield. The caterpillar has done some harm, and the worm has been busy at some places. But generally, even where the caterpillar appeared, the injury has been trifling. In Alabama, the reports have been for the most part favorable. In the early part of the season the cut-worm did some damage, especially in the lower section of the state, and in the latter part, various slight injuries have been sustained in almost every county in the state. But the large amount planted, the natural increase of hands, and the favorable season for gathering the crop, promise a large increase over the receipts of any previous year. The most important of all the cotton sea-ports is New Orleans, and the country from which its supply is received, is so various in its character, and so extensive, that it is difficult to form any just estimate of the receipts. The floods along the Mississippi and the Red river were very disastrous. The injuries from the worm have been extensive. In spite of these, from the favorable concurrence of the early season, and the fine weather for picking, and the high price of cotton at the time the present crop was planted, and the natural increase of planters and working hands, a fair average crop may be expected. The following estimate of the receipts is submitted:

	1843.	1844.	1845.	
New Orleans,.....bales	1,060,000	832,000	900,000 to	1,100,000
Mobile,.....	482,000	468,000	520,000 to	600,000
Florida,.....	161,000	146,000	190,000 to	220,000
Georgia,.....	299,000	255,000	290,000 to	330,000
South Carolina,.....	352,000	305,000	340,000 to	380,000
North Carolina and Virginia,.....	25,000	24,000	20,000 to	30,000
Total,.....	2,279,000	2,030,000	2,260,000 to	2,660,000
Average,.....bales				2,460,000

This is below some of the estimates that have appeared in the newspapers, but, excepting only the amount received at New Orleans, the rest may be confided in, as a fair and reasonable estimate. So much for the supply from the United States.

The receipts from India cannot well be foreseen. But the low prices in Europe will, of course, discourage shipments. The imports from India into England for several years have been various, and the circumstances which have made them larger than formerly, have been more or less understood.

1833,.....	95,000 bales.	English prices moderate.
1834,.....	88,000 "	" "
1835,.....	118,000 "	" high.
1836,.....	219,000 "	" very high.
1837,.....	145,000 "	" high.
1838,.....	109,000 "	" moderate.
1839,.....	132,000 "	" high.
1840,.....	216,000 "	Chinese war.
1841,.....	275,000 "	"
1842,.....	255,000 "	"
1843,.....	182,000 "	Peace, and low prices.
1844,.....	about the same.	Peace, and moder. prices.

The low prices which will prevail in 1845 will doubtless tend to reduce the receipts from India, but as the production has much increased there since 1833, and an outlet for this must be found, there cannot be much falling off in the supply from this quarter. We shall put it at 150,000 bales. The supply from all other countries, except the United States and India is so small and so nearly stationary, that the average of the last five years will be near enough for our purpose.

1839,.....	176,000 bales.	1842,.....	120,000 bales.
1840,.....	112,000 "	1843,.....	165,000 "
1841,.....	119,000 "	Average,.....	138,000 "

Putting together these items, we have the probable supply from all sources for 1845.

United States,.....	2,460,000 bales.
India,.....	150,000 "
All other countries,.....	140,000 "
Total supply,.....	2,750,000 "

Let us now turn our attention to the probable demand. And first, let us begin with the United States. The increase in our consumption has been pretty regular.

Years.	Bales.	Av. bales for 3 yrs.	Inc. p. c.
1837,.....	220,000	.....	...
1838,.....	244,000	.....	...
1839,.....	276,000	247,000	...
1840,.....	295,000	271,000	9.8
1841,.....	297,000	289,000	6.9
1842, (11 months,).....	268,000	295,000	2.1
1843,.....	325,000	305,000	3.4
1844,.....	347,000	321,000	5.2
Average,.....			5.5

Our factories are as busy and active as ever. Their demands will increase until the market is overstocked with goods, of which there is yet no sign. The increase in the demand, cannot, however, much exceed that of the last year, which was 7 per cent. This is above the average increase; but the low prices and the favorable state of the trade, warrant us in putting the increase as large as it was last year. This will give 370,000 bales as the consumption of the American manufactories for 1845.

The French consumption has been nearly stationary for the last four years, and there are as yet no symptoms of any revival in their demand. The following table contains the French consumption for several years back.

Years.	France.	Havre, only.	Years.	France.	Havre, only.
1838,.....	392,000 bales.	294,000 bales.	1841,.....	419,000 bales.	347,000 bales.
1839,.....	326,000 "	240,000 "	1842,.....	445,000 "	349,000 "
1840,.....	446,000 "	353,000 "	1843,.....	..... "	334,000 "

Our exports to France, the total French imports, and the stocks on hand, on the 31st of December of each year, have been as follows:

Years.	U. S. Exports.	Imports.	Stocks.
1838,.....	321,000 bales.	391,000 bales.	63,000 bales.
1839,.....	242,000 "	339,000 "	75,000 "
1840,.....	447,000 "	467,000 "	96,000 "
1841,.....	348,000 "	459,000 "	136,000 "
1842,.....	398,000 "	447,000 "	138,000 "
1843,.....	346,000 "	..... "	119,000 "
1844,.....	283,000 "	..... "	..... "

The stock on hand at Havre on the 15th of August, 1844, was 117,000 bales against 157,000 at the same time last year. And although the trade yet exhibits no activity, yet the diminution in their stocks, and the very low prices which will prevail, will give an impulse to trade in France, that will carry it higher than it has been for years. Their wants will, perhaps, exceed what they have been in any previous year. Besides the receipts at Marseilles from Egypt, we may safely put their demand of American cotton as high as 420,000 bales.

The demand on the continent, out of France, is small, and though variable, it will not be difficult to get at it very nearly. Our exports, and the stocks on hand, have been as follows:

Years.	Exp. from U. S.	Stocks.	Years.	Exp. from U. S.	Stocks.
1838,.....	89,000 bales.	76,000 bales.	1842,.....	131,000 bales.	104,000 bales.
1839,.....	34,000 "	72,000 "	1843,.....	194,000 "	147,000 "
1840,.....	181,000 "	112,000 "	1844,.....	140,000 "	..... "
1841,.....	105,000 "	75,000 "	Average,	156,000 "	..... "

Taking into account the increase of stocks, the consumption of American cotton does not seem in any year to have exceeded 151,000 bales. To allow it to reach 180,000 will be about a fair estimate, considering the extraordinary incitements to a large consumption.

The great market for cotton, is, however, in Great Britain. To estimate this demand with much accuracy, is very difficult. The consumption for the last seven years have been as follows:

Years.	Bales.	Years.	Bales.
1837,.....	1,073,000	1841,.....	1,173,000
1838,.....	1,222,000	1842,.....	1,195,000
1839,.....	1,084,000	1843,.....	1,383,000
1840,.....	1,276,000		

For the year 1844, the deliveries to the trade have thus far differed but little from last year. The weekly consumption for the part of the year elapsed, at the following dates, is taken from the usual circulars:

	1844. Bales.	1843. Bales.		1844. Bales.	1843. Bales.
June 14,.....	21,690	24,719	August 16,.....	25,304	25,495
July 3,.....	23,100	24,920	September 3,...	25,452	25,853
August 3,.....	25,104	25,316	September 13,.	25,094	25,898

This indicates a slight falling off from last year; but the stocks in the hands of the manufacturers, have, it is said, decreased considerably, so that the falling off is more nominal than real. The present low prices

will soon encourage the spinning of coarse numbers, and thus increase the demand for the raw material. The operation of other favorable causes will probably bring up the consumption by the first of January to very near the amount for last year. It may with safety be put at 1,880,000 bales. The following table gives the increase, and the rate of increase for several years past, taking two years at a time:

Years.	Average consumption.	Increase.	Incr. p. cent per annum.
1837 and '38,.....	1,147,000 bales.	.....	....
1839 and '40,.....	1,180,000 "	33,000 bales.	1.5
1841 and '42,.....	1,184,000 "	4,000 "	.2
1843 and '44,.....	1,384,000 "	200,000 "	8.5

This is certainly very irregular. But it is to be remarked that the slow increase occurred at the time of the war in China, and that the great increase in the last two years has been partly produced by the sudden opening of the immense empire of the east. Comparing the first two with the last two years of the table, the increase is 20.6 per cent, or 3.4 per cent per annum. But even this is too high for the natural increase, for we compare the demand before the war with the extraordinary demand immediately after its close.

But let us recur to the causes now operating to increase or diminish the natural demand. The English harvests have been good, and the price of food is low. This will increase the home demand in Great Britain. There is as yet no glut in the market for cotton goods, and at all the manufacturing towns the trade is reported to be healthy and prosperous. The very low prices will greatly encourage consumption. The following table of prices shows this very satisfactorily:

Years.	Eng. consumption.	Increase and decrease.	Av. price at U. S. custom-house.	Increase and decr. of price.
1837,.....	1,073,000 bales.	.....	14.0 cts.	.....
1838,.....	1,222,000 "	149,000 inc.	10.1 cts.	Decrease.
1839,.....	1,084,000 "	138,000 dec.	14.5 cts.	Increase.
1840,.....	1,276,000 "	192,000 inc.	8.6 cts.	Decrease.
1841,.....	1,173,000 "	103,000 dec.	10.3 cts.	Increase.
1842,.....	1,195,000 "	22,000 inc.	8.2 cts.	Decrease.
1843,.....	1,388,000 "	193,000 inc.	6.3 cts.	Decrease.
1844,.....	1,380,000 "	8,000 dec.	...	Increase.

By this table it appears that a fall in the price has always increased the consumption in the last seven years, and a rise has always diminished it. And were it not that the amount consumed in England has been unnaturally increased during the last two years by the opening of the Chinese ports, and the increased demand for cotton goods in India, in consequence of the resuscitation of their trade with China, we might anticipate as large an increase in the demand as in any former year. To suppose the consumption of the last year at about 100,000 bales over the natural demand; and the increase from low prices and other favorable influences, to reach 200,000 bales, seems to us the fairest estimate that can be made. This will make the English consumption 1,480,000 bales. We are now ready to compare the probable supply with the probable demand.

United States crop,.....	2,460,000 bales.
English import from India,.....	150,000 "
English import from other places,.....	140,000 "
Total supply,.....	2,750,000 "

Wants of the United States,.....	370,000	"
" " France from the United States,.....	420,000	"
" " the Continent, from United States,....	180,000	"
" " of England,.....	1,480,000	"
	2,450,000	"
Excess of supply,.....	300,000	"

As the stocks have been accumulating for years, and are now large beyond all precedent, this additional burden of 300,000 bales cannot but be felt very severely. The following table gives the stocks for the end of each year.

Years.	Liverpool.	England.	In all the ports.
1837,.....	.....	259,000 bales.	386,000 bales.
1838,.....	.....	321,000 "	460,000 "
1839,.....	.....	265,000 "	412,000 "
1840,.....	.....	464,000 "	672,000 "
1841,.....	430,000 bales.	550,000 "	761,000 "
1842,.....	457,000 "	665,000 "	807,000 "
1843,.....	654,000 "	786,000 "	1,052,000 "

And this immense stock will be increased at the end of 1844, as appears by the following table:

	Stocks, 1843.	Stocks, 1844.	Price of fair uplands.
Liverpool, June 14,.....	931,000 bales.	917,000 bales.	4⅛*d.*
" July 3,.....	912,000 "	926,000 "	5
" Aug. 3,.....	935,000 "	998,000 "	4⅞
" Aug. 16,.....	917,000 "	983,000 "	4⅞
" Sept. 3,.....	871,000 "	945,000 "	4⅞
" Sept. 13,.....	831,000 "	921,000 "	4⅞

In anticipation of the accumulation of stock, prices have fallen a little in Liverpool, and still more in this country. They must yet decline still more abroad, but the fall in this country must be but trifling. As far, therefore, as the future is foreshadowed by the results of our investigations, we may expect, after only a slight decline in this country, steady, but low prices.

Art. IV.—THE POST-OFFICE DEPARTMENT:

considered with reference to its condition—policy—prospects, and remedies.

The administration of the post-office department of the United States has been, for the last fifteen years, a theme of alternate praise and censure, among more or less persons who have not been, as well as among those who have been, engaged in party politics.

The ramifications of it, reaching as well a thousand byways, as a thousand highways, in our widely extended territory, and attended by many thousand active, driving agents, in the capacity of postmasters, deputy postmasters and clerks, contractors, stage agents, stage drivers, and latterly railroad agents, penny post men, runners, &c. &c., all members and parts of one system, and the labors and efforts of all being guided by, and concentrating in, responsibility to a single head—these ramifications, thus

numerous and diverse, and searching, have no equality of extent in the wide world of governments, nor among any people upon our globe.*

Upon a smaller scale of territory, its similitude may be found in the English post-office system. But the wide extension of the system here, among sparsely as well as densely populated communities, renders all attempts at running a parallel between them, with a view to guide the operations of the larger by those of the less, unsafe and deceptive.†

That parts of this great organization should at times become disjointed, —that a member of it here and there, should at intervals prove inefficient, or false, is not to be wondered at, and certainly ought not to be made a serious objection to it, as a whole.

Even great abuses and perversions of it, in the hands of political partisans, have, undoubtedly, at different junctures, been endured by the people, without suggesting the idea of abolishing it altogether for some

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* As far back as 1828, the postmaster-general of that day stated the number of persons employed by the department at about 26,956; including, of course, all classes of dependants in the employ of contractors. (See Annual Report of 1828, with President's Message to Congress.)

† In 1840, the mail service of the United States, by stage and coach, and horse and sulkey, was, in miles,..... 32,481,723
In the same year, the mail service in the United Kingdom of England, Ireland, Scotland, and Wales, was by coaches, horse and foot posts,..... 7,464,250

Excess of former,..... 25,017,473

In the United States, during the same year, the service by steamboat and railroad was, in miles,..... 3,889,053
In the United Kingdom of Great Britain, it was..... 936,590

Excess of former,..... 2,952,463

In the United States, same year, the number of post-offices was..... 13,468
In the United Kingdom of Great Britain, the number was..... 3,938

9,530

The system in the United States requires the general post-office at Washington to open and adjust accounts quarterly with each of the 13,468 postmasters; while, in Great Britain, the general post-office in London has accounts opened with only 640 offices in England and Wales, one in Ireland, (at Dublin,) and one in Scotland, (Edinburgh.) Total, 642. The office at Dublin acts to all the other offices in Ireland, and that in Edinburgh to all the other offices in Scotland, as the general post-office, and accounts over to the general office at London.

The above statistics, respecting the British post-office department, are derived from the report of the special agent, appended to the annual report of the postmaster-general, December 5, 1840. But it is stated in the annual report of December, 1843, that the total transportation of the mails in the United Kingdom is about 20,000,000 miles annually. We do not know how the discrepancy arises.

"Some idea may be formed of the amount of business done in this department, from the fact that the communications of all sorts received in the different offices, excluding the auditor's office, amount to a daily average of about 860 for the writing days, equal to 269,180 a year; the communications sent, to about 470 daily, equal to 147,110 a year; and the cases actually decided by the postmaster-general to 48 daily, equal to 15,024 a year."

"The magnitude of the work done by the auditor and his clerks may be estimated from the fact that they examine and adjust the four quarterly accounts of each postmaster, making 48,000 a year; and the accounts of each contractor quarterly, or oftener, making about 7,000 a year; keeping the mass of books required in this service; closing each *year the accounts of about 2,000* ex-postmasters, and carrying on the heavy correspondence growing out of these extensive details." (P. M. Gen.'s Ann. Rep., Dec. 4, 1837.)

substitute, as the great financial organization of government agencies was, from kindred objections, abolished. But the only desire excited, in times past, by such complaints, has been, for a reformation of the administration of the department, in the obnoxious particulars.

Events, however, have latterly brought the public mind to contemplate seriously, the possibility of an *utter overthrow** of the whole system of mail arrangements, which has hitherto obtained so much favor in the public regards, and seriously to entertain the enquiry, what can be done for its preservation in its present or more improved form?

It is undoubtedly true, that prejudices and hostile feelings even, towards the post-office department, have been engendered of late, and are increasing, among various classes of people, irrespective of political partizanship; and we think these may be traced primarily, if not entirely, to two influences.

1st. To an over rigorous system of espionage by the department, through its subordinates, upon letters and packages that are transmitted by the mails.

2d. To a popular conviction that the rates of postage, exacted by law, are unnecessarily high and oppressive upon the social and business relations of the people.

The motive that has impelled the first of these influences, has, undoubtedly, been two-fold, viz:

1st. An ambition in each of the successive heads of the department to show off his individual capacities of administration to the greatest possible advantage to himself, and to the political party with which he was identified, and, to this end, exercising all the powers of the department with despotic energy.

2d. A growing conviction, that nothing short of extreme rigor, and minuteness, in exacting postage from the people, would maintain the receipts of the department up to the point of its current extension and expenditures, from which it is found to be rapidly declining.

The ambition that has actuated the heads of the department, in the way described, is personal, and its excesses will vary according to the peculiar temperament of the man at its head, for the time being. They can only be restrained by a properly careful and minute legislative definition, and limitation of his powers—leaving as little as may be to the province of official discretion and expediency. Within limits thus defined, the motive in question will always be laudable, and even essential to a proper *esprit de corps* in the department. When stretched beyond such limits, it naturally begets dissatisfaction and resistance in the public mind.

But the other motive has less apology. It begets the very evils to the

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* An intelligent writer in this Magazine, vol. 9, p. 440, says of the opposition mail business, or private expresses: "The ramifications of that business afford the means of destroying the post-office ultimately altogether." Another writer, vol. 10, p. 27, says: "The post-office department of the United States is at this moment the subject of more public discussion than any other department of the service. One can hardly take up a newspaper, or meet an individual in conversation, without reading or hearing complaints. The conviction is gaining ground among the people, that the whole system is inefficient, and oppressive. The call for *reform* is almost universal."

The postmaster-general, in his annual report of December, 1843, says, there are those who contend that the post-office system is an odious monopoly, *and ought to be abolished.*

department which it seeks to remedy, while it aggravates, instead of curing those which pre-existed from other causes. It has proceeded, however, from one degree of rigor to another, until every petty postmaster and *attache* of the department, feels himself authorised, and even bound, by the instructions of his superiors, to impose postage, *ad libitum*, and to mutilate the envelopes, and dissect the packages of any and all letters, papers and pamphlets that are committed to the mails, not merely to satisfy well grounded suspicions of fraud, but to search out grounds of suspicion, where no provocation whatever exists.*

When one contemplates the character of the instructions to deputies for this purpose, which have emanated from the heads of the department within a few years back, and in this connexion considers the practices of deputies under those instructions, there is no room left for the supposition that the administrators of the department repose *the least confidence in the moral sense of the people.* He is rather led to believe, that they look upon all who have recourse to the mails as wreckers, and smugglers, and plunderers, devoid of patriotism, devoid of integrity, and requiring to be hunted and watched, and treated accordingly. Whether it is a habit resulting from this low estimate of the people, produced insensibly by these extraordinary official instructions, or an active and abiding conviction of the unworthiness of the people, originating in the same official impulse, we will not undertake to say; but, the fact is observable, that go where you will, in city or country, and propose to pay postage on a letter, or package in advance, with the declaration of its being single, or double, and the official dignitary with whom you are brought to deal, in a majority of cases, will pry into it, and twist it into various shapes, while in the act of receiving the postage, as if to question you to the teeth respecting your veracity and honesty, and regardless of the insult thus conveyed. Small as such a procedure may be regarded in its influence upon the prosperity of a great department of government, it has a meaning that does not escape the popular discrimination, and exerts an influence in no wise beneficial to the government. To avoid, or to correct it, the opposite extreme of carelessness, or of credulity, need not be indulged. When vigilance lacks decency, it is thereby proved to be excessive. In truth, there scarcely need be other evidence than an antagonistical *distrust of the people*, by a department of the government, in whatever ways betrayed, to prove, to a reasonable mind, that *there is a want of adaptation to the public feeling and interests, in either the spirit of its policy, or the rules of its administration.*

The principle of *vis major*, is not the proper one upon which to either frame, or administer, any branch of government for a free and enlightened people. Search through all history—the history of every civilized people that have lived upon the globe, under whatever form of government—and it will be found, that popular discontent has never manifested itself towards any legalised exaction, or exercise of governmental power,

* Upon their part of the grievances of the above character, members of Congress have taken special notice. The report of a select committee of the House, June 15, 1844, commences thus: "It has been made to appear that in general instances the franks of members of this House, upon letters written by themselves have been erased, and postage charged thereon, in disregard of such franks, and the provisions of law." The report, after *stating other facts*, concludes with the resolutions declaring certain regulations, *instituted by the postmaster-general*, to be in violation of law.

so far as to compel the government to plant itself upon the odious principle of *vis major*, already adverted to, *against the people generally*, except in cases where both reason and the practical result, sooner or later consummated, proved the government to be in the wrong, and its proceedings founded in a mistaken policy.

True it is, local outbreaks in resistance to general laws, at points where the most onerous sacrifice to the general welfare has been felt, are found in the history, or have been witnessed in the progress, of every people. We, as a nation, have not been without instances of the kind, as in what is known, as *Shay's Rebellion* in Massachusetts, the *Whisky Rebellion* in Pennsylvania, and the *Nullification Storm* in South Carolina. These fell strictly within the classification of local discontents. The popular feeling, at this time existing towards the post-office department, partakes not of this character. It is not local, but general. It is not confined to any one state, or number of states less than the whole. *It is national.* It is met with both upon the highways and the byways; and it is the same in both, and in all, in the interior and on the seaboard. The complaint is universal, that the *espionage* and rigor of the post-office department are oppressive, despotic, and illiberal, to meanness; and that the postage exacted by law is in amount excessive, and exorbitant—out of keeping with the facilities of our day and generation.* If there be frauds, or evasions of the post-office laws and regulations, as undoubtedly there are many, *in these sources lie the origin, and the incentive of them all.* Fetter a man, then bid him walk, and is it strange that the thought should occur to him, how great would be his advantage could he contrive to break his fetters? Tax a citizen exorbitantly, and you impose upon him the necessity of seeking relief in evasions of the payment. If the hunger of his children does not impel him to do it, the act is nevertheless commended to his own sense of justice; and when a man feels himself pushed to extremities, he prefers obedience to the dictates of his own judgment, to submission to that of any compulsory influence, if he can see the way open to exercise a choice without too great hazard. Not one man in ten,† the world over,

* Adverting to the popular feeling on this subject, the minority report of the committee on the post-office, in the United States House of Representatives at the session of 1843–4, says:—"At the present session, petitions are poured in upon us like a flood. The people are importunate and determined to be heard. They have called in, as an auxiliary, state legislatures, many of which have passed resolutions urging the reform, and instructing their representatives in Congress to sustain it. The movement seems not to be local, or partial; it extends over most of the Union, though there is certainly a difference in the intensity of the feeling in different sections of the country. On no other subject within our recollection has there been so great a degree of unanimity."

† Since writing the above, we have met with the following confirmatory views in the minority report of the House committee, mentioned in a former note:—"The difference of expense for postage, in conducting an extensive correspondence between these two modes of sending letters, is very great; and, as was to be expected, many persons avail themselves of the economy of the opposition line. Man, in his fallen state, is inherently selfish; and the rejection of such facilities, when proffered for his acceptance, is, perhaps, more than we have a right to expect from his frailty—certainly it is more than has been realized from his patriotism. The opposition post-office is extensively patronized. We have no desire to scrutinize the motives of its patrons. Many, we have no doubt, are actuated by the mere selfishness of gain; but there are others whom we believe to be governed by other and higher motives. Having for years remonstrated in vain against what they deem to be exorbitant and oppressive rates of postage, they have at last adopted the conclusion that it is right to oppose and evade laws which they consider as unjust and oppressive; and they have accordingly taken redress into their own hands." * * * "Our gov-

will respect a law that violates his own sense of even handed, practical justice and expediency, and at the expense or sacrifice of his favorite or essential interests, more especially where no moral guilt, beyond that created by a temporal government, is involved. Witness, in illustration, the total, universal indifference, not to say, *contempt*, of all classes of people, towards the laws enacted a few years since in several states, against the use and circulation of bank bills under the denomination of twenty, ten, and five dollars. Such prohibitions had all the sanctimonial formalities and moral influence that legislation could impart. Yet, as well might such laws have had an inscription only upon the moving sands of the sea shore. They were to the heart, of even the ordinarily scrupulous of all political parties, like the fruit of the dead sea upon the lips of the traveller, as described by the poet—*ashes*—mere ashes—lifeless, ineffectual, a solemnity of forms lost in the general feeling of mockery and disrespect engendered by them. To this same extremity do the people see and *feel*—and the feeling of the people is far less safely tampered with than their sight, only, may be; to this extremity do the people both see and feel themselves driven by the post-office department, its laws and exactions.

We pause here to remark, that if there is any act calculated to engender dissatisfaction in the mind of an individual, and to spread from individuals to the popular feeling, it is the frequent discovery of a *system of government espionage*, under any pretence whatever, upon matters which are sent, or received by the mails. And, to a people trained with the notions of our people, in respect to the emanation of government exclusively from themselves, its constant dependance upon themselves for support, and the relation of servants in which all government officers, from the highest to the lowest, stand to the people, there is nothing short of insolence, and a direct insult, conveyed to their understandings by the pretension of a *legal right*, on the part of government officers, to pry into matters which are regarded as pertaining to private confidence, and thus to desecrate the sacredness of personal correspondence.

Returning for a moment to the disposition of the department to distrust the integrity of the people, on the subject of postage, it may be remarked, that, to whatever extremity of evasions popular dissatisfaction towards the present mail arrangements may be considered as pushed at this time, the evasions perpetrated by the government's own officers, are, when compared with those practised by all the rest of community, only as the farthing rush light to the sun.

At any rate, we hazard nothing against common observation, and what is notorious matter of fact, in saying, that ten evasions of postage are perpetrated, and the legitimate revenue of the department is ten times avoided,

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ernment is entirely based on popular opinion; the House of Representatives, the laws, and the constitution itself, are the mere reflection of the popular will. If laws are enacted by their representatives, in opposition to the will of the people, it is impossible to enforce them; the decided resistance of a respectable minority, is sufficient to nullify a law for all practical purposes; and so difficult is it to convict even a single individual of wealth and influence of an offence, that it has grown into a proverb, that penal laws are spiders' webs, in which the small flies get entangled, and the large ones break through. How can it be possible, then, to enforce penal sanctions against the combined power of wealth, influence *and numbers, sustained* by a strong public sympathy? We do not believe it can *be done, and, under present* circumstances we should regret to see the experiment tried, *lest it produce evils* more serious than it is intended to cure."—pp. 4 and 5.

by postmasters, heads of departments, and of bureaus, and by members of Congress, where one instance of the kind is perpetrated by the mass of the people not immediately connected with, or "in the good graces" of, these official dignitaries. And is it wonderful, that the searching measures and instructions adopted by the department, with legislative pains and penalties, towards the people—forbidding even the transmission of a written name upon a newspaper, without subjecting it to letter postage, —and as if the people were the chief offenders—are regarded with popular indignation and hostility? The case, when stated in unambiguous terms, stands thus—

The post-office department finds itself sinking under its accumulation of expenses. It asserts that the revenue laws of the department are evaded and defrauded to a ruinous extent---that its revenues are rapidly falling below its wants. It issues order upon order, backed by displays and threats of pains and penalties, requiring a rigor of administration on the part of its subordinates, towards the people, that amounts to both pecuniary meanness and odious espionage. All this, while it is known, as well as any thing short of a self-evident truth can be known, that ten times the evasions and frauds upon the department are practised by, and through the government's own officers invested with the franking privilege, than are practised by the whole community beside. And while it is also known, that but for the extended use and superadded abuse of the franking privilege, the income of the department, properly administered, would admit of a very large reduction of the tariff of postage, to the great interest and convenience of the people.

Under these circumstances, the people, who discern well the whole matter, are not willing to be the scape goats of government officers, and bear submissively and tamely all the obloquy that should attach only to the actually offending parties, and bear, also, the chief burthen of supporting the department.* They, consequently, are excited and exasperated towards it, and prompted by both feeling and interest to encourage and improve every other facility of correspondence that opens to them, the mails are shunned and neglected by them as an evil, and an unconscionable burthen. Our encouragement against all this lies in the certainty, that the cause and the consequence are alike visible, and are not irreme-

* The following extracts will illustrate and confirm the correctness of the views we present above: "Another source of detriment to the revenue, the past year, has been the exercise and abuse of the franking privilege to an unprecedented extent. During the last three quarters, the free matter constituted a very large portion of the entire mails." * * * "There are facts that have come to the knowledge of the department, which show that great abuses have been practised by those enjoying the privilege, in the highest as well as the lowest stations, in covering the correspondence of others, to the great injury of its revenue. This and other abuses of the privilege, appear to be rapidly increasing, and imperatively demand a remedy, either by its entire abolition, or such restrictions upon it as could be enforced by the department."—Postmaster General's Report, Dec. 5, 1840.

In three weeks of the session of Congress, in 1840, there were sent from the post-office in Washington, 434,669 free letters, documents and packages, weighing 32,689 pounds, or nearly 6½ tons. "Taking this on the average of the session of 33 weeks, it would appear that the free letters and packets sent from the office in Washington during the session, amounted to 4,781,359, and the two cents allowed to postmasters for delivery of the free letters would be $95,627." "It may be estimated, that there has been abstracted from the revenue of the past year, in the allowance of the two cents to postmasters for the delivery of free letters and packets, and the two cents paid for advertising *free letters*, the sum of $150,000."—Ibid.

diable. But we re-admonish those who have the power, and whose duty it is to apply a remedy, not to seek it in the *vis major* principle. If the post-office department is to be supported by the direct patronage of the people, it must be shaped and administered so as to conform to the practical sense of right, and economy, and utility, entertained by the people, and in all these particulars compare favorably with enterprises that are conducted by themselves. If this be not done, and the actual offenders are left to laugh with impunity at the misdirected anathemas of the department, its condition and prospects will continue to go on from bad to worse, until the whole system shall either die out from starvation, or be cast an annual pauper upon the other financial resources of the government. It is not in a spirit of prophecy, but from clearly visible data, that this conclusion is deduced.*

Suppose it were a provision in the revenue laws, upon which rests the treasury department, that all its principal officers, and also those of the state, navy, war, post-office, and attorney general's departments, and all members of Congress during their respective terms and for months thereafter, should exercise the privilege of importing, *duty free*, as many goods and articles of merchandise as they might individually direct; and suppose it were found in practice that they were importing in such enormous quantities as were notoriously designed not merely to supply their own consumption, but that of so large a portion of the community beside themselves, as to prevent the government from realising revenue from all other importations sufficient to defray the expenses of its necessarily distended, and still distending operations in carrying on the affairs of government, and not enough, even, to pay the salaries and perquisites of the officers of the treasury department alone, with the contingent expenses of their offices; and suppose the duties were still kept up to a high and onerous point, and alike upon necessaries and upon luxuries, and at such a crisis the head of the treasury should issue order upon order to his numerous subordinates, declaring that the revenues are falling off, and that this penalty and that penalty must be enforced with invigorated rigor and minuteness, to prevent the people from smuggling and defrauding the revenue; and suppose that these orders in a particular manner indicate that every package and article that assumes to be imported by a private indi-

* The writer of this article was informed at the post-office in the city of New York, within a few weeks, that the number of letters that now pass through the mail from New York to Boston, as compared with the number last year, is only as one to five, *or* 80 *per cent loss!*

The minority report of the House committee, heretofore alluded to, speaking of the effect of the expresses, or private mails, says:—"Unless an effectual remedy be speedily applied, the whole establishment must be overwhelmed and prostrated. The revenue for 1843 was less than that of 1842 by more than a quarter of a million of dollars, and less than in any year since 1838; and it is already apparent that the reduction will be increased the present year. We have every reason to apprehend—indeed it amounts to a moral certainty—that under the present organization of the post-office, there will be a progressive annual diminution of the revenue; and as an inevitable consequence, either a great reduction of mail accommodations must take place, or the department must bear heavily upon the public treasury."

The majority report of the same committee says: "Events are in progress of a fatal tendency to the post-office department, and its decay has commenced. Unless arrested by vigorous legislation, it must soon cease to exist as a self-sustaining institution, and *either be cast on the treasury for support*, or suffered to decline from year to year, till the *system has become impotent* and useless."

vidual, and having none of the ear marks, or franks of the privileged government officers upon it, must be broken open or searched into, and measured, and weighed, and counted, and marked, and certified, and broken open again, and searched, and measured, and weighed, and counted, and marked, and certified yet again, to make it certain that the humble importer is not perpetrating a fraud upon the revenue; how very like would be all this, to the present condition of things—the orders, privileges, practices and effects, of the existing post-office administration in our country! How long, is it imagined, if the case were that of the treasury department, instead of the post-office department, would it be endured? A comparatively few importers would then pay all the revenue received for the support of government, and their customers and consumers, only, would contribute to the burthens of government. The importing government officers, and all their friends and favorites would be exempted from a just quota of taxation, and, standing back, might laugh at the perplexities and expenses that beset the *bona fide* importer, growing out of the galvanic zeal to prevent smuggling of the oft instructed revenue officers! While such should continue to be the case, is it difficult to see why there would be felt additional incentives to smuggling, on the one hand, and concurrently to discourage duty paying importations on the other hand, except by privileged persons—thus reducing the department to bankruptcy without diminishing its wants?

It is hardly necessary to follow out the parallel to any greater extent, either to expose the cause, or suggest the proper remedies of such a condition of things.

There are undoubtedly some very serious influences and impediments to a reduction, or restriction of the franking privilege. These arise from the peculiar nature of party politics, and party organization in this country. Besides, we must, in all our anticipations on this subject, have reference to the necessity of taking members of Congress as they are, not as they either might, or should be. As geologists, on finding dug from the far interior embankments of the earth, fossil remains of an ante-deluvian creation, can, aided by certain general principles which science has developed, easily define, from the peculiar shape of such remains, and the obvious processes by which their muscles were attached, to what order, genera and species the living body belonged, and whether its habits led it to seek food upon the high and solid ground, or the oozy marshes and beds of rivers—whether it was characterized for strength, or speed, and whether provided with hoofs, or claws, &c. &c., so is it easy, aided by our knowledge of the general impulses and inclinations of political partisans in Congress, and of the influences that impart excitement to their organizations, to define the limits to which they will go in curtailing their own power and opportunities of political exertion, and what extent of reformation, at their own expense or inconvenience, may be expected of them. Let one fact suffice—"of the twelve acts of Congress relating to the franking privilege of its members and officers, *all*, with one exception, *have served to enlarge the right.*"* In a word, there is very little hope, that Congress will abolish, or materially curtail, the franking privilege, unless absolutely forced to do so by an active and commanding public sentiment. It is the galvanic current that animates the organization of both political parties; and neither party is disposed to dispense with it,

* Annual Report Postmaster-General, Dec. 1840.

or disarm themselves of it. It is doubtful whether the people desire them to do so. And almost every member of Congress, in the House especially, feels that his re-election is more or less dependant on an active exercise of it. It is an evil, therefore, so far as objectionable, which we may as well look in the face with the purpose of ascertaining how, if it cannot be got rid of, its burthen may be endured, and the post-office department be also made to sustain itself.

It seems not to have been hitherto sufficiently considered, with a view to an improvement of the department, to what extent the franking privilege, and high rates of postage act, and react, upon each other. While it may be said to be "apparent, that nearly the whole expenditure of the mail establishment is thrown upon correspondence, and that it pays the whole expense of the free matter, the greater portion of that of newspapers, periodicals and pamphlets, and the entire additional expense incurred for accommodating the public travel; and that with all these burthens, not properly belonging to it, thrown upon correspondence, the high rate of postage on letters cannot be surprising;"* it may, with equal truth be said, that it cannot be surprising that so large a portion of correspondence should be thrown upon the franking privilege, or into free matter, and upon newspapers, periodicals and pamphlets, while the high rate of postage on letters is continued. The remedy for each of these evils is to be found in one and the same process, viz., A REDUCTION OF POSTAGE. It is the high rate of postage that suggests and forces individuals into a compromise and abuse of the franking privilege with their friends. Take away this incentive, and the ordinary sense of shame at a mean act, that characterises men, will resume its proper influence over both the party who would otherwise give, and the party who would otherwise seek, the frank. Both now find an excuse for the act, each for himself and each for the other, in the onerousness of the postage system. The policy should be to hit upon such a reduction as will convert the present abuses of the franking privilege into legitimate and certain revenue to the department; and this by discouraging the abuse of the mails, on the one hand, and encouraging a continuance of as large portion as possible of the present use of the mails, on the other hand, at a satisfactory rate of postage.

One other consideration, directly tending to a reduction of the high postage system, seems not to have occurred to the administrators of the department, or at least not to have been steadily practised upon. It is, that with a much less degree of vigilance and rigor, and of official espionage and scrutiny, than has been exerted on the *receipt* side of the department's accounts, to increase that, if exerted on the *expenditure* side to diminish that, would have essentially improved the condition of the department in respect to both its finances, and the popular regard for them. Without designing to criminate any particular postmaster-general, or any one administration, it may be truly said, that during the last fifteen years, the department has been perpetually running deeper and deeper into an alliance with inflamed and inflammatory party politics. Appointments and removals have been notoriously made all over the Union with reference to political effect and party organization. The patronage and influence of the department have been doled out, from the smallest homœpathy doses up to almost princely stipends, primarily with that view. In a

* *Postmaster*-General's Annual Report, Dec. 1840.

recent report of a committee of the United States Senate, we find it stated that "the number of persons as deputy postmasters and their clerks, contractors, and others, in the employment of the department in 1840, was 15,257, and in 1842 was 19,727. There being only 14,848 separate offices in the country, it would appear that within the last two years there had been 4,617 persons appointed more than there were offices to be filled, and, consequently, that there had been at least that number of removals and new appointments to office within that period."* If this branch of the department's patronage has been notoriously perverted to political ends of a strictly partizan character, is it slanderous to disbelieve that its contracts, extra allowances, and expensive indulgencies to favorites, have been shaped by a higher or purer motive, even though we are unable to define the precise facts, and the precise number of dollars and cents thrown away, in each case?

The better to appreciate what the department now is, and the reforms it needs, let us recur to what it was. In November 1827, before any will pretend that it had become an auxiliary to party politics, the postmaster-general (Mr. McLean) thus described its operations, capacities and prospects:

"In the last four years there has been added to the mail operations of the country, in revenue, transportation of the mail, and post-offices, more than one-third. The means of the department are now ample to meet the reasonable wants of the country; and a vigilant administration of its affairs, for a few years to come, will place at the disposition of the government an annual surplus of more than half a million of dollars. This sum will be augmented as facilities of mail intercourse are multiplied."†

In the course of this article we have already evolved facts that exhibit the condition and prospects of the department, at this time, in a very sorry contrast with what they were in 1827.

Numerous indisputable facts tend to the same conclusion, of want of proper heed to the expenditure side of the accounts of the department, which has rendered proportionably less effective its vigor and scrutiny on the receipt side. In the postmaster-general's annual report in November 1839, it is admitted that the average prices for the different classes of services in the southern section of the Union, composed of Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia and Florida, increased in the year ending with June 1839, *forty-nine per cent in cost*, while the increase of transportation had been only *nine* per cent! There could have been nothing in the difference of prices of corn, hay, breadstuffs, labor, and other essentials of contractors, to justify any such increase of cost.

In the postmaster-general's annual report, December 1840, he states that the then existing contracts for transportation are at an average advance of about *fifty per cent* above the rates of compensation paid prior to 1836.

By the assistant postmaster-general's report in November 1837, it appears that in the northern and middle states, the then average constant price of carrying the mail per mile, was, for horse and sulky, 5 1-3 cents; for stage and coach, 8-12 cents; for steamboat and railroad, 10 cents.

By his report, November, 1838, it appears the average cost in the southern states had been, for horse and sulky, 5 cents; for stage and coach, 9 2-3

* Report of Committee on Retrenchment, of U. S. Senate, June 5, 1844. See document 399, p. 42.

† Annual Report of Postmaster-General, Dec. 1827.

cents; steamboat and railroad, 9 cents; and was to be under new contracts, for horse and sulky, 6 3-10 cents; for stage and coach, 10 9-10 cents; for steamboat and railroad, 12 7-10 cents.

By his report in December 1843, it appears the average cost of transporting the mail throughout the Union had been, for horse and sulky, 5 2-5 cts.; for stage and coach, 8 4-5 cents; steamboat and railroad, 12 4-5 cents.

Will the price currents of the country indicate the necessity of any such increase of compensation for labor, breadstuffs and other elements of contract service? We fearlessly aver they will justify no such conclusion.

The average cost for all grades of mail service, except the railway and packet, in Great Britain and Ireland, is scarcely 5 cents per mile. The coach mail pays just 5 cents. In the United States, the average cost, exclusive of railroad and steamboat transportation, is nearly 7 1-2 cents per mile; for mail conveyance in coaches, the cost is 3 4-5 of a cent per mile greater in the United States than in Great Britain.*

By Senate document of the last summer, No. 399, and tables thereto annexed, it appears that in the general post-office at Washington there were employed in 1828, *thirty-nine* clerks and other persons, at an expense per annum of $55,270 73; that in 1842 there were employed *one hundred and fifty-three* persons, at an expense per annum of $191,455 79. Now, while this difference in the expense is wholly disproportioned to the difference in the number of persons employed at the two periods mentioned, the increase of both number and expense is wholly disproportioned to the ratio of augmentation in the business and duties of the department, so far as any reasoning can flow from incontrovertible data. For instance,

In 1828 there were 7,651 post-offices in the Union.

In 1842 there were 13,733—less than 100 per cent increase.

In 1828 the total number of miles of post route established and in operation, was 114,586.

In 1842 the total was 149,732—less than 33 per cent increase.

In 1828 the total receipts of postage was..... $1,598,134 43

In 1842 the total was..... 4,546,246 13

Less than three-fold increase, with nearly double the number of offices to receive it, as in 1828, and more than four-fold the number of offices in the general post-office to keep an account of it, at an expense nearly four-fold as great as in 1828. But very little reflection will tell any one that the multiplication of officers should not be at all in an equal ratio with the increased revenue of the department. In 1828, when there were 7,651 postmasters, the general post-office had that number of quarter-yearly accounts to adjust, making a total of 30,604 annually, and employed 39 persons only to perform that and all incidental service. In 1842, the number of postmasters being 13,733, and the quarterly accounts amounting in the year to 54,932—less than 80 per cent increase, seem to require, with the incidental service, 153 clerks, &c., or an increase of 299 per cent!

It would be useless to go more into details of fact. Our purpose is not to criminate, but to reform. And when we are told that the reform which the great mass of the people so much desire, cannot be granted, on account of the impoverished income of the post-office department, we invoke a curtailment of its extravagances, and a reform of the policy of its

* Postmaster-General's Annual Report, Dec. 1843.

administration, as one of the essential steps towards satisfying the wants of the public. We contend, that the expenditures of the department ought to be brought down to an economical scale, *in aid of a reduction in the postage system.* We mean not to say that it will, "*per se,*" answer the full extent of the popular prayer; but, it is one of the constituent and important elements in the accomplishment of it.

It should not be overlooked, that among the difficulties encountered in reducing the expenditure side of the account, is, the extravagant cupidity and power of monopoly that actuates many of the railroad and steamboat companies. There is no earthly reason why the institution of these facilities of transportation should not cheapen the transportation of the mail service, as well as it does, or can the transportation of every thing else. They should come in aid of the reduction of postage, instead of retarding it. And yet the contrary seems to be the fact. And in this respect, the sympathy and aid of the people, individually and through their state legislatures, so far as legitimate control can be exerted, should come up to the help of the department, and of Congress acting with the department, against these companies. And does any one doubt, that this would be the case, if the post-office department *were but reinstated in the confidence of the country?* There is no justification to be found in the general laws of industry and trade, to warrant the exorbitant exactions referred to. No more is there in the well ascertained results of these expenditures and increase of these corporations. The following table exhibits the comparative cost of English and American railroads, and a comparison of their incomes and profits, annually.

English Roads.	No. miles.	Tot. cost.	Cost per mile.	Propor. of rec. to ex.	
Liverpool and Manchester,	32	£1,398,552	$211,909	100.57	
Grand Junction,.....	97¼	1,900,000	94,756	100.48	Av. per mile,
Leeds and Birmingham,...	112½	5,600,000	241,422	100.41	$187,706.
London and Greenwich,...	3¾	608,000	786,347	100.68	
American Roads.					
Boston and Lowell,.....	26	$1,608,476	$61,864	100.38	
" Providence,....	42	1,850,000	44,048	100.32	Av. per mile,
" Worcester,.....	44½	1,848,085	41,530	100.54	$44,394.
Nashua and Lowell,.....	15	353,662	55,054	100.52	

From these data, it appears that the average receipts of the English roads, is in the ratio of 15 per cent annually on their cost, and their nett profit 8 per cent; and the receipts of the American roads are 15½ per cent on their cost, and their nett profit is 9 per cent.

While it is thus manifest that the mails should be carried as cheaply, (if not cheaper,) with due regard to the profits of the contractors, on the American railroads, as on the English roads, the fact is nevertheless found to be, that "the highest rate of railroad compensation, in Great Britain, is only $107 50 per mile annually, and the average rate but $90. In the United States, more than $300 are paid in many instances, and the average cost of railroad service exceeds $143 a mile."* On the great road from London to Liverpool, on which the great mails for Ireland, Scotland, the British Provinces in North America, and the United States are carried, the price per mile is $107 50—distance 210 miles, and the speed is 23 miles per hour.†

* House Report, U. S. House Rep. No. 483, p. 13, May 15, 1844.

† See Appendix to Postmaster-General's Report, Dec. 1840.

hat will demonstrate again very clearly how unconscionable is the ıtage taken of the department by these companies, is a comparison ı different prices paid to different railroads, for transporting the mail. following table has been compiled with this view:

ıain of Railroad.	Length of service. Miles.	Tot. numb. of trips weekly.	Ann. miles of mail transp't'n.	Cost per mile for transp't'n.	Ann. cost of transportation.
MAINE.					
outh to Portland,	50	24	62,400	8.01 c.	$5,000 00
EW HAMPSHIRE.					
rd to Lowell,.....	49	24	61,152	4.84	2,958 00
ASSACHUSETTS.					
ı to Portsmouth,..	54	26	73,008	13.62	10,068 50
Worcester,....	45	26	60,840	13.97	8,500 00
Providence,..	43½	36	85,410	8.20	7,006 00
ster to Springfield,	55	26	74,360	11.09	8,250 00
field to Albany,...	100	12	62,400	16.02	10,000 00
HODE ISLAND.					
lence to Ston'gton,	48	12	29,952	20.03	6,000 00
ONNECTICUT.					
rd to New Haven,	36	28	52,416	12.05	6,319 00
p't to West Stock-ge,.....	96	12	59,904	6.58	3,945 00
NEW YORK.					
o to Youngstown,.	35	14	25,480	4.32	1,100 00
n to Pittsfield,....	42	6	12,104	16.52	2,000 00
ont to Goshen,....	45	12	28,080	4.58	1,286 00
ort to Lewistown,.	20	14	14,560	6.87	1,000 00
NEW JERSEY.					
rk to N. Brunsw'k,	36	28	52,416	22.49	11,788 00
York to Paterson,.	17	24	21,216	6.53	1,385 00
ENNSYLVANIA.					
leL to Columbia,...	82	28	119,392	13.74	16,400 00
Pottsville,...	98	14	71,344	9.63	6,875 00
MARYLAND.					
ıore to Philadel-ı,.....	99	26, 8 mo. / 14, 4 mo.	113,256	27.02	30,600 00
ıore to Washing-.....	40	28 / ½ tr. 8 mo.	59,640	20.96	12,500 00
" Cumberl'd,.	179	14	130,312	33.17	43,225 00
VIRGINIA.					
ıond to Aquia,....	75	14	54,600	35.71	19,500 00
" Petersb'g,.	24½	14	17,836	32.62	5,818 50
ıburg to Weldon,..	64	14	46,592	32.65	15,200 00
ORTH CAROLINA.					
ɔn to Wilmington,.	160	14	121,576	30.86	37,500 00
GEORGIA.					
sta to Madison,....	109½	14	79,716	32.02	25,525 10

n some cases the amount demanded by railroad companies for transtion of the mails, is *more than two hundred* per cent higher than is for coach service, upon roads forming connecting links between difıt railroad companies, upon the same main route, and that, too, when night service upon the railroads is less than that performed in hes."*

a very similar spirit are the exactions of steamboat companies. The ıined table will illustrate our meaning and argument.

* *Postmaster-General's Annual Report, May 29, 1841.*

Route and Termini.	Ann. transportation. Miles.	Tot. cost per ann.	Cost p. m.
New York to Stonington, 125 miles,.....	78,000	$10,760	13.0 cts.
New York to Norwich, 142 miles,.....	88,608	4,239	4.9 "
New York to New Haven, 80 miles,.....	49,920	8,000	16.0 "
Virginia—Washington to Aquia, 54 miles,.	39,312	12,752	32.4 "
" Norfolk to Baltimore, 200 miles,	124,800	7,157	5.7 "
N. C.—Wilm'gton to Charleston, 170 miles,	123,760	37,500	30.3 "
Fla.—Chattahoochee to Apalach., 150 miles,	31,200	5,500	17.6 "
Mich.—St. Josephs to Chicago, 69 miles,....	43,056	2,900	6.7 "
Ky.—Cincinnati and Louisville, 132 miles,.	95,096	5,000	5.2 "

"Formerly," says the postmaster-general in his annual report of November 1839, "the mail was carried six times a week between New York and New Haven, for $4,000 per annum. At the last regular letting in that section, it was let for a daily service at $6,000, with a proviso that if the company should be dissolved, the contract should be at an end. Last spring they gave notice of dissolution to the department. Their successors refused to continue the service for less than $30,000 per annum. The department offered $6,000 for six times a week service, and $8,000 for daily, but the new company would not reduce their exorbitant demand to $15,000, with the privilege of selecting their own hours for the service. Subsequently a temporary arrangement was made with a gentleman of great energy, to charter boats and put on another line for the purpose of conveying the mails. After making several efforts, he reported to the department, that although boats could be procured for any other service, so great was the fear of the principal owner upon the New Haven line, or so extensive a combination existed, that no suitable boat could be chartered, on any terms, to run on that line."

But the most formidable antagonist of the department remains to be considered, although it has been distinctly adverted to already in our elucidation of the present depressed condition and prospect of the department's finances. We of course mean what are called the express mails, or private expresses, now organized and conducted with as much spirit as, and with far more economy than the government's mails. Various influences have grown up to produce this new arrangement. In fact, the very causes that have depressed and are still depressing the post-office department of the government, constitute the highest encouragements to the private mail or express system. The high rate of postage of the former, —the facilities of conveyance furnished by railroads—the rigorous and hair splitting spirit towards the people in which the post-office department has been administered—the partisan spirit imparted to postmasters, by the terms upon which alone appointments are known to be either obtained, or retained from the department, tend directly to the institution and support of the department's great rival. Without adding other data to the facts heretofore cited in this article touching the operations and effect of the private expresses upon the finances of the government's post-offices at each of the great cities in the eastern and middle states, we will only quote the emphatic results which both the majority and minority of the post-office committee of the House of Representatives of the last session of Congress announced to the country. The majority describe the private expresses as "of fatal tendency to the post-office department"—and as having already caused *its decay to commence;* and that, unless they are "assisted by vigorous legislation," the department "must soon cease to exist as a self-sustaining institution," &c.

The minority say, "it is clear that a crisis has arrived requiring decisive action. Temporizing expedients and half-way measures will not answer. Pressing evils demand an immediate and efficient remedy. What remedy shall be applied? *The first object to be accomplished, clearly, is, to get rid of the expresses*, or private mails. Any measure which will not accomplish this object, is unsuited to, or at least insufficient for, the occasion. We again repeat, that, in our opinion, the first thing to be accomplished is, to get rid of the expresses; and any sacrifice that may be necessary to accomplish this object, ought to be made unhesitatingly."

The majority and minority gentlemen of the House committee differed widely as to the *modus operandi*, in accomplishing the result which they united in presenting as the *sine qua non* of the post-office department's existence as a self-sustaining institution. The former proceed upon the pound of flesh principle—law-prosecutions, penalties, punishments, are their sole weapons, excepting, only, an abolition of the franking privilege. But in exchange for that, they require the department to recompense the national treasury for the salaries of all the officers and clerks of the general post-office establishment, heretofore paid out of the national, and not the department's treasury, $165,000 per annum. "We propose to punish," say they, "the transaction [of private expresses,] in whatever form carried on or undertaken. Penalties are provided in the bill we submit, both against the person who sends, and the person who conveys, a letter out of the mail," &c. They also report adversely to any general reduction of postage.

The minority gentlemen adopt what we deem a more practical view of this difficulty. They repudiate the terrific system of force, penalties, &c., which the majority gentlemen are so tenacious of. They proceed upon the more christian principle of mild persuasion, blending with that the more human one of self-interest that actuates the mass of the people. "We believe," say they, "there is one way, and only one way, in which the department can be sustained, its popularity redeemed, its revenue restored, and its accommodations and benefits extended; and that is, by making it the safest, the cheapest, and the most expeditious mode of transmitting letters and intelligence."

Their panacea by which to accomplish all this lies in a reduction of postage down to the popular judgment; and then, say they, "if attempts are made to violate or evade the laws, their penalties, however severe, may be enforced, for the community will unite in their execution."

We think the minority gentlemen are much nearer right in these views, than are the majority in those expressed by them. But we do not believe the means suggested by either, are equal to the result which both have in view. If the Supreme Court of the United States shall ultimately adjudge to be valid the constitutional power claimed for the department, to exclude all competition in carrying mail matter in the country, (of which we entertain serious doubts, however desirable such power may be considered in the administration of government,) the effect will be to suppress, not to encourage, correspondence, while the rates of postage over any considerable routes should be disproportioned to the expense of private expresses. The business of the department, without the good will of the people, will never support it. If the court decides against the power, then we know there is no alternative but a reduction of postage, *or an abandonment of* the department, in toto.

But *can* the department afford to reduce the postage so low as will satisfy the people on the great business routes, and at the same time derive sufficient income to sustain its mails upon the great number of unproductive routes in the country? On this point we reluctantly differ from the expectations and conclusions of the minority gentlemen. One conclusion, then, is, that neither with, nor without, the aid of penal laws, and the requisite constitutional power to sustain them, the government can never compete on the profitable mail routes, with private expresses, or individual accommodations, at any rate of postage that shall be requisite to support the government's mails on the unprofitable routes, looking only to the means hitherto employed.

The truth is, the enterprise of the country has become too active for the old system of things. The best facilities the government mails can afford the densely populated portions of the country, are both too slow and too expensive to comport with the improvements and business necessities of modern times. New contrivances, and new elements of administration must be introduced, or the operations of government, in many things, and particularly in the post-office department, will be found quite too sluggish and expensive for the public taste and spirit, and individual enterprise will rob it of its perquisites, *by stealing the hearts of the people from it.* We all know, that during the late war with Great Britain, the efficiency of the government's vessels of war would not begin to compare with the efficiency of private armed vessels, or privateers, and no more did they in number. While, too, the latter did double the service of the former—made double the number of prisoners of war—captured immensely more of the enemy's property—the expense of them, to their managers, was not one third, and perhaps not one sixth, of the expense of the former. All this proves, that government enterprise is wholly unable, under its most advantageous promptings, to compare with private enterprise. It must be superior in power, and exclusive in the employment of means, to be equal in results with individuals. And, a government like ours, must also have the good will of the people, to be successful under any circumstances. This it is impossible to secure, while it makes them feel a sense of oppression, or extortion, or of unnecessary taxation.

What shall be done if this reasoning, and the data furnished, are to be taken as correct guides? The answer is, let the government bestir itself, and seize upon the resources which science and genius have developed at this crisis, and brought to maturity just at the moment when nothing short of an entirely new, and almost super-human agency can save the post-office department from destruction, and lift it once more above private competition. Give up the antiquated and anti-republican device of ruling the people by force—by penalties and punishments---and attach the people to the support of government by a liberal display of the benefit it is capable of conferring. The old theory of *ruling* the people has been supplanted by the new theory of *serving* the people; and he will find himself retrograding, and getting farther away from support by the people, who abandons the principle of the new theory, to return to that of the old one.

We have extended our article too far to demonstrate now, as we think may be done, the practicability, by recourse to proper agencies, and to proper reforms in old ones, of sustaining the franking privilege to the *utmost* extent needed---of reducing the rates of postage, at the same time, *to* the lowest standard hitherto sought by the people---of supplanting the

whole system of private mails and expresses---of placing the post-office department in a condition to accomplish every desired extension of mail transportation, annually, out of its own proper resources, and, of retaining the most complete monopoly of the whole mail service in the country; and this, without recourse to a single odious penalty, or act of punishment, towards any competitor. But we will return to the subject, and invoke upon our views the candid judgment of all business men.

Art. V.—BRITISH BOUNTY ON MANUFACTURES.

In the late excited election, a violent controversy has been carried on in the papers, relative to a protective tariff. It has been asserted in some of the leading public journals, the Boston Morning Post, in Boston, and other papers in New York, that no bounty had ever been paid by Great Britain upon the exportation of her manufactures. It is emphatically stated in those papers, that the bounty was merely a drawback of an excise, which was levied for revenue, on the exportation of the manufactures. As the tariff will soon be a subject of discussion in the Congress of the United States, it is of great importance that the truth should be known. It has a most important bearing upon a great national interest. It fully shows the policy of Great Britain, and how she has attained to such perfection in her manufactures. It explains the causes of the failure of so many manufacturing establishments in their infancy in this country. It shows the absolute necessity of a protective tariff at some periods of their establishment.

In the first instance, we propose to show it by the treaty of commerce with Great Britain of the 3d July, 1815, that these bounties were paid. In article 2d, it is stipulated, "that the same duties shall be paid, and the same *bounties* allowed on the exportation of any articles, the growth, produce, or manufacture of her Britannic Majesty's territory in Europe to the United States, whether such exportation shall take place in vessels of the United States, or British vessels, and in all cases where drawbacks are allowed upon the re-exportation of any goods, the growth, produce, or manufacture of either country, respectively, the amount of the drawbacks shall be the same.

But the speech of Nicholas Vonsittart, chancellor of the exchequer, in the House of Commons on the 17th June, 1812, in a debate upon the supplies, during the war with France, explains most fully the policy of the British government, with respect to manufactures. It is extracted from Cobbet's Parliamentary Debates, vol. 23, page 566.

"The first article he had to propose, was indeed one which appeared to him liable to very little objection, for in fact, it was a tax which would fall upon nobody, (a laugh.) Gentlemen may smile, but if it was in other respects unobjectionable, he trusted it would not be censured on that account. His proposition was to discontinue the bounty on the exportation of printed goods. The bounty had grown from a very small charge to a very large one, amounting upon an average for the last three years, to the sum of £308,000; a circumstance, in one respect, highly satisfactory, *as it showed* the great increase which had taken place in the *exportation of those goods*, but which showed at once, that the necessity

of granting this bounty had ceased, and that a considerable revenue might be derived from its suppression. The printed goods in question, from the improvement of the manufacturers, and the extensive use of machinery, could now be afforded much cheaper, without the bounty, than they formerly used to be with its assistance.

"The present state of the world, with respect to commerce, was peculiarly favorable to the discontinuance of the bounty system. Wherever British manufactures were permitted to enter, their superiority was universally acknowledged; when they did not find their way, it was not on account of their dearness or inferior quality, but because they were excluded by rigorous prohibitions. Whenever these might cease, the country might expect to see British manufactures spreading themselves over the continent without the assistance of bounties. That which it was now proposed to discontinue, amounted to no more than one half penny a yard on goods of the lowest quality, and three half pence on the highest; an amount much within the ordinary fluctuations from ordinary causes, and the loss of which could not operate as any discouragement to trade. To him, therefore, the proposition appeared free from all reasonable objection. His task would be easy, if he could have flattered himself that what he had still to propose, was equally unobjectionable; but of the remainder of his plan, he could only, as he had said before, indulge the hope that in the choice of evils, he had selected the least."

In this speech, we have the avowal of the chancellor of the exchequer, that four million six hundred and twenty thousand dollars were paid for bounty on printed goods in three years. A considerable bounty, at the same time, was paid upon the exportations of Irish linens, silk goods, glass, and many other articles. But their manufactures have now advanced to such perfection, that it has become unnecessary, and the law is repealed. For many years it was the settled policy of Great Britain to grant such bounties on the exportation of those manufactures, to which the industry of the country appeared to be directed. Many thousand dollars of this very bounty, have been received by the writer of this article, and twenty merchants, now resident in Boston, can be referred to, who have received from two to twenty thousand dollars a year, while the bounty was allowed.

An excise duty of 3½*d.* the square yard was levied on printed cottons for revenue, which was returned to the exporter precisely in the same manner that a drawback of duties is now obtained here upon re-exportation. This was repeated some years after the peace with France. The payment of this bounty and debenture, which were paid directly to the exporter in money, stimulated greatly the exportation of printed cotton goods. We hazard nothing in the assertion, that no manufacturing establishment of the kind could have been sustained in the United States, or in Europe, where the goods were admitted. The amount of the bounty and debenture averaged about one hundred dollars on a case of printed cottons containing fifty pieces. In many instances the exporter received in money one half the value of the goods.

That the system has contributed to the advancement of British commerce and manufactures, there can be no question. It was by no means *uniform*, but adopted when pressed by foreign wars, or when necessary for the encouragement of a particular manufacture which required it.

The result is, that her manufactured exports much exceed, in amount, those of any nation of ancient or modern times.

However beneficial this system may have been to Great Britain at times, nothing similar has ever been proposed in this country. Indeed, the condition of the United States varies so essentially from that country, that it is difficult to imagine a case where it might be adopted with success.

Art. VI.—ANTHRACITE COAL TRADE, BY RAILWAYS AND CANALS.

The regular and steady increase in the consumption of hard coal, with the importance of still further reducing the price, to generate steam for manufactures in the upper part of the island of New York, renders it an interesting enquiry, as to the several avenues for supply.

In 1820, the Lehigh canal first brought to tide water, 365 tons of coal. In 1825, the Schuylkill canal to Pottsville, commenced with 5,306 tons; the Lehigh canal then having reached 28,393 tons. In 1829, the Delaware and Hudson canal was opened to the Lackawana region, and brought to market 7,000 tons, while the Lehigh and Schuylkill canals furnished 103,403 tons. In 1840–41, the Philadelphia and Reading railroad commenced its coal business, with 50,000 tons, when the above named canals had gradually increased these supplies to 958,000 tons. During the last year, these three channels furnished 1,201,852 tons. It is estimated that the supply this year will be 1,450,000 tons. Of this quantity, about 450,000 tons come by the Reading railroad, transported, to include freight and tolls, at $1 25 per ton, a distance of 98 miles. This quantity does not supply the steady and increasing consumption.

The reduction in price, during the last year, equals in value $2,000,000. This saving to the public has been produced by the competition of the Schuylkill canal, with the Reading railroad. This reduction in price, with the steady increase in our population, added to the use of this class of fuel, in steamboats and by the various manufactories in New England, and in the interior, from the decrease of the forest, renders it probable that the demand will increase as fast, or perhaps faster, than can be supplied by the canals at present in existence, unless we resort to "the better improvement of the age," *railways*. The several avenues from the anthracite coal fields, may be enumerated as follows:

In the state of New York, we have the Hudson and Delaware canal, that for the last two years has increased its supply of Lackawana coal from 111,777 tons of coal, to 227,605 tons during 1843, delivered at Roundout, on the Hudson. This coal is consumed largely by our steamboats, from its admirable qualities to produce flame and to generate steam. The improvement in the capacity of the Hudson and Delaware canal, and the class of boats navigating this avenue, 108 miles, with the railway to the mines, 18 miles, will probably give it a capacity of transporting 500,000 tons per annum.

The next canal, south of the Hudson and Delaware, is the Morris, which is 102 miles long. It extends from Jersey City to the Delaware, *opposite to Easton*, where it connects with the Lehigh canal. The Morris

Canal has twelve inclined planes, east of the summit, and eleven west of it, with numerous locks originally arranged to take pass boats of 27 tons. The summit is 950 feet above tide, or equal to 1,750 feet, ascending from the Delaware, and descending to the harbor of New York. This work has been purchased by some rich capitalists, who design to increase the locks, and to improve the planes and locks, so as to pass boats of 54 tons burthen—such as now pass through the Lehigh canal. It is supposed the demand for coal, to smelt the fine iron ore, on the line of this canal, will of itself pay an interest on its present cost, $1,000,000; this sum being less than one-fourth of the capital originally invested in this costly undertaking.

On each side of the Morris canal, there are two railways projected, and partially finished, to compete for the same trade. The Morris and Essex railroad, on the north, is to be extended to the Wyoming Valley, through the Water Gap; and the Somerville railway—26 miles finished—on the south to Easton. This road is destined to reach the outlet of the Lehigh Valley, and is to be connected with the Schuylkill Valley. The distance from tide water, at Elizabethport, to Easton, by a late survey, is within 60 miles, and to Jersey City, 73 miles. The summit, on this route, is 550 feet above tide, and the ascent from Easton, in the first ten miles, will not exceed, at any one point, 45 feet to the mile. It will then be descending with no grade to tide water, greater than 27 feet to the mile. By increasing the distance ten miles, (if considered desirable, the policy of which may be doubted,) the summit will be reduced to 400 feet, and with no grade, from the Delaware to the Hudson river, over 27 feet to the mile.

The Somerville railway, being only 60 miles from the outlet of the Lehigh Valley to Elizabethport, and from its communicating direct with the harbor of New York, open at all seasons, while the canals are obstructed, on an average, five months in the year by ice, gives the railway the advantage over the canals, of one year in four. This, in the employment of capital, with the extra capacity of the railway in transportation, is all-important, to cheapen freights.

The next avenue, in the state of New Jersey, for the coal trade, is the Delaware and Raritan canal, 7 feet deep, by 70 feet wide. It has the capacity to float coasting vessels of 160 tons, from Brunswick to Trenton, on the Delaware. This canal has only 112 feet descent, overcome by 14 locks, from Easton to tide water at Brunswick. The feeder, from the Delaware to Trenton, the inlet of the Delaware and Raritan canal, is 22½ miles long, 6 feet deep, and 60 feet wide. It is adapted to the largest boats on the Lehigh canal. These boats average 55 to 60 tons. This important avenue assimilates to the Schuylkill canal, both in the size of boats admitted by the feeder, and in the current, favoring the descending trade.

Next in order, after leaving New Jersey, we have the Delaware canal, from Easton to Bristol, Pennsylvania. A selfish, sectional policy, has heretofore refused an outlet at Blackeddy's lock, to connect with the Delaware and Raritan canal.

The next most efficient canal, for the coal trade, has been the Schuylkill, 108 miles from Pottsville to the Permanent Bridge, Philadelphia. It has transported 584,692 tons per annum. The stock of this canal has been about 300 per cent above par, paying dividends as high as 20 per

cent, on a cost of about $4,000,000. It has now intermitted its dividends three years, in its contest with the Philadelphia and Reading railroad. The stock has fallen below par, while the railway, still much below par, owing to its original extravagant first cost, is steadily on the advance. The capacity of this canal is about 7,000,000 tons per annum.

The most important avenue, in our view, for the coal trade, owing to its level, or descending grade from the mines at Pottsville, is the Philadelphia and Reading railroad. It is 98 miles from Pottsville to the depot at Richmond, on the Delaware, where there are facilities to load daily 30 or 40 coasters, and an equal number of canal boats to pass up to Trenton, and from thence by the Delaware and Raritan canal, to New York. The wharfage room and tracks for turnouts, &c., to save labor, covers 40 acres of land, a consideration of no small importance to economise labor, in the handling of coal, prior to discharging it from the trains into the holds of the loading vessels.

Such has been the late improvements in the locomotive engine, also in the construction of sheet iron freight cars, competent to carry five tons each, in trains, over this road, of 100 to 150 cars, drawn by one locomotive, that, everything considered, it has been demonstrated this railway has an advantage, in capacity and for cheap transportation, over the Schuylkill canal. From this, we may argue that the Somerville railway, if judiciously located and constructed, with a heavy edge road, of at least 60 pounds to the lineal yard, will, in a sharp competition, be superior and have advantages over the Delaware and Raritan canal, when it becomes a question of mere remuneration for labor to the miner, and to those who transport it, at a period when the supply exceeds the demand. In this contest, between the railways and canals, it is safe to calculate that the day is not distant, when the price of hard coal, delivered in New York harbor, will not exceed $3 per ton.

That some idea may be formed of what the Philadelphia and Reading railway has done, and the Elizabethport and Somerville railway may do, taking into consideration the difference in grade, and distance to the New York market, the following statement is made of the expense of transporting 750 tons, of 2,240 lbs. each, over the Philadelphia and Reading railroad.

The expenses are calculated to keep the motive power, cars and engines, in perpetual repair. The rates are liberal and ample. To this estimate of cost of haulage, is to be added, first, the cost per mile per annum, to keep the perishable part of the road, the superstructure, in perpetual repair, also the road bed. Experience in this country shows that these items need not exceed $500 to $900 per annum. Then we have to make an allowance to the stockholders, of say 6 per cent on their outlay of capital, for the cost of the road. It will be perceived the cost of motive power, for the load of 750 tons drawn by the Ontario locomotive, is only $118 10, a fraction less than 16 cents, for drawing a ton of coal 98 miles. Where is the canal that can compete with this ?

We learn that Messrs. Baldwin & Whitings, and we believe also the Messrs. Norris & Brothers, have offered to guarantee that their improved engine of 16½ tons, with six wheels, all rivers, such as the Ontario, will haul daily, as a regular business, over the Reading railroad, trains of 100 cars with 500 *tons of coal*, at the rate of ten miles per hour, at twenty-

five cents for the cost of motive power, keeping the engine and cars in perpetual repair.

As the Reading railroad has now a double track, and with a view that some idea may be formed of the capacity of this road to furnish coal for market, when supplied with an adequate motive power, the following calculation is made. If a train is started every hour in the day—24 hours,—with 500 tons, the road would transport 12,000 tons per diem. This 313 days, gives the enormous quantity of 3,756,000 tons per annum. With Morse's telegraph, and with surplus motive power at the stations, to meet contingencies, trains could be safely started every 40 minutes. This would give about 5,000,000 tons per annum, provided every thing was kept in order, the coal could be mined, and no accident took place.

The cost of transporting a load of 750 tons by the Ontario locomotive referred to, for motive power, is stated to have been as follows, allowing two days for the trip, with a single track and turn outs. Now there is a double track; the trip up and down can be performed in one day, although 100 miles is a good day's work for the engine driver, to keep his engine and tender in repair. With an increase of motive power, which we learn is progressing regularly, under Eastern management and capital, there will be no difficulty for this company to transport, during 1845, 1,000,000 of tons, if there is labor to mine that quantity.

COST OF MOTIVE POWER, READING RAILROAD—ITEMS OF EXPENSE.

1 engine driver, 2 days, at $2 per day,	$4 00
2 firemen, 2 " 1 25 per day,	5 00
1 conductor, 2 " 1 30 "	2 60
10 brake-men, 2 " 75 "	15 00
Fuel,	22 00
Oil for engine and tender, per trip,	3 00
Repairs to do., say 200 miles, at 5 cents per mile,	10 00
Repairs to 150 cars, with 750 tons, at 5 cents per ton,	37 50
Oil and grease for cars, with 750 tons, at 1 1-5 cents,	9 00
Supplying water,	1 00
Proportion of assisting engine, 1 mile, with 42 feet grades,	3 00
Extras,	6 00
Total,	$118 10

Making 15¾ cents for a ton, 100 miles.

If the above statement is correct, and we believe it to be so, from the best authority, can the Erie canal, the most favored, compete with this railway? We trust the friends of the Erie canal, and the canal policy of New York, will at all events permit a law to pass, by which the railways by its side may be permitted to carry freight the entire year, paying canal tolls, although this is an unjust tax on private enterprise. Motive power is too costly to provide it for five months' business in the winter, after the canal has carried the bulk of the produce, if they are to be charged by the state $2 per ton, the present charge on merchandise for tolls for each 100 miles, and $1 on agricultural and other products, for the gross ton of 2,240 pounds. J. E. B.

Art. VII.—ANNALS OF AMERICAN COMMERCE.

NUMBER IV.*

1774. *British Government, provoked by the destruction of the Tea, passes the Boston Port Bill, &c.*—Intelligence of the destruction of the tea at Boston was communicated, on the 7th of March, in a message from the throne, to both Houses of Parliament. In this communication, the conduct of the colonists was represented, as not merely obstructing the commerce of Great Britain, but as subversive of the British constitution. Although the papers, accompanying the royal message, rendered it evident that the opposition to the sale of the tea was common to all the colonies, yet the Parliament, enraged at the violence of Boston, selected that town as the object of legislative vengeance. Without giving the opportunity of a hearing, a bill was passed, by which the port of Boston was legally precluded from the privilege of landing and discharging, or of lading and shipping goods, wares and merchandise; and every vessel within the points Alderton and Nahant, was required to depart within six hours, unless laden with food or fuel. This act, which shut up the harbor of Boston, was speedily followed by another, entitled "an act for the better regulating the government of Massachusetts." The object of this act was to alter the charter of the province, so as essentially to abridge the liberties of the people. In the apprehension that, in the execution of these acts, riots would take place, and that trials or murders, committed in suppressing them, would be partially decided by the colonists, it was provided by law, that if any person were indicted for murder, or for any capital offence committed in aiding magistracy, the governor might send the person, so indicted, to another colony or to Great Britain, to be tried. These three acts were passed in such quick succession, as to produce the most inflammatory effects in America, where they were considered as forming a complete system of tyranny. "By the first," said the colonists, "the property of unoffending thousands is arbitrarily taken away, for the act of a few individuals; by the second, our chartered liberties are annihilated; and, by the third, our lives may be destroyed with impunity."

The port bill arriving in different parts of the colonies, copies of it were multiplied and circulated with incredible dispatch, and excited universal indignation. At Philadelphia, a subscription was set on foot for such poor inhabitants of Boston, as should be deprived of the means of subsistence by the operation of the act. The Virginia House of Burgesses resolved, that the 1st day of June, the day on which the operation of the port bill was to commence, should be set apart by the members as a day of fasting, humiliation and prayer, "devoutly to implore the divine interposition, for averting the heavy calamity which threatened destruction to their civil rights and the evils of a civil war; to give them one heart and one mind, firmly to oppose, by all just and proper means, every injury to the American rights." On the publication of this resolution, the royal governor, the earl of Dunmore, dissolved them; but, previously to their separation, eighty-nine of the members signed an agreement, in which they declared, "that an attack, made on one of our sister colonies, to compel submission to arbitrary taxes, is an attack made on all British America, and threatens ruin to the rights of all, unless the united wisdom of the whole be applied." They also recommended to the committees of

* *Continued from 1773,* Merchants' Magazine, for October, 1844, pp. 350 to 352.

correspondence, to communicate with the several committees of the other colonies, on the expediency of appointing deputies to meet annually in general Congress, to deliberate on those measures which the united interest of America might from time to time require.

On the day designated by the port act, business was finished at Boston, at twelve o'clock at noon, and the harbor shut up against all vessels. The day was devoutly kept at Williamsburgh, in Virginia, as a day of fasting and humiliation. In Philadelphia, it was solemnized with every manifestation of public grief; the inhabitants shut up their houses, and, after divine service, "a stillness reigned over the city which exhibited an appearance of the deepest distress." In other places, it was observed as a day of mourning.

1775. *Bill for restraining the Commerce of New England.*—The prime minister, Lord North, moved for leave to bring in a bill to restrain the trade and commerce of the provinces of New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut, to Great Britain, Ireland, and the British islands in the West Indies; and to prohibit those provinces from carrying on any fishery on the banks of Newfoundland, and other places to be mentioned in the bill, under certain conditions, and for a limited time. After much opposition, in both houses, the bill was ratified by a great majority.

MONTHLY COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE.

The state of the markets, generally, has been powerfully affected during the month of November; in part by the result of the elections, assisted by the position of the cotton market, and the movement of the government funds with the deposit banks, simultaneously with the quarterly contraction of the New York banks, preparatory to their return of November 1. We have remarked, in former numbers, that money has, for eighteen months, been generally plenty; and that the banking institutions, in justice to themselves, have uniformly struggled to obtain a high rate for money. In this, they have occasionally succeeded. In November, 1843, money was at 3½ a 4 per cent; in February, it was worked up to 7 per cent. It subsequently fell to 4 per cent. In June, it was again at 7 per cent. It again became easy; and, in November, 7 per cent was again the rate. These fluctuations arose from the fact that, when the banks succeeded in obtaining a high rate, individual capital and funds from the neighborhood immediately flowed in for employment, and the increased supply reduced the rate. In the course of this struggle, however, the liabilities of the banks have been considerably increased.

IMMEDIATE MEANS AND LIABILITIES OF THE NEW YORK BANKS.

	August, 1843.	Nov., 1843.	August, 1844.	Nov., 1844.
Immediate Liabilities.				
Deposits,	$24,679,230	$27,389,160	$28,757,122	$30,391,622
Nett circulation,	9,383,534	12,952,055	15,349,205	17,647,182
Due banks,	9,611,940	4,941,514	7,744,118	5,664,110
Canal fund,	741,382	1,157,203	1,210,794	1,534,553
United States,	4,033,385	1,645,320	3,674,171	3,786,261
Total,	$48,449,471	$48,085,252	$56,735,410	$58,023,728
Immediate Means.				
Specie,	$14,091,779	$11,502,789	$10,191,974	$8,968,092
Cash items,	2,734,417	3,102,856	4,916,862	6,047,528
Total,	$16,826,196	$14,605,645	$15,108,836	$15,015,620
Loans,	58,593,081	61,514,129	71,643,929	73,091,768

From August, 1843, to 1st November, a gradual extension of loans took place, amounting to $14,498,707, or 25 per cent of the loans then outstanding; while cash means have diminished near $2,000,000, or 12 per cent. The nett circulation of the banks, or the actual amount of money put afloat by them, has increased $8,300,000—a very considerable increase. The loans of the state banks, on the 1st November, were higher than ever before, with the single exception of the January return for 1837, just prior to the suspension. While this increase of business has been going on, the import trade has considerably increased; creating a demand for money, to some extent, for mercantile purposes, at the same time that it has drawn from the importers of New York, into the federal treasury, over $20,000,000; of which $13,820,251 was on deposit with government banks on the 1st of November. This government money was, to a considerable extent, employed by the banks in making their loans; and, as it was deposited in four banks alternately, the successive contractions each was obliged to make, as the money was withdrawn, enabled others to advance the rate on their old loans "at call." The imports into the port of New York have been, for ten months, as follows:—

IMPORTS INTO THE PORT OF NEW YORK.

	Dutiable Goods.	Free Goods.	Total.
January to July,.....	$32,023,702	$6,656,260	$38,679,962
July,.....	6,543,331	707,952	7,251,283
August,.....	9,537,279	1,121,221	10,658,500
September,.....	7,846,050	825,843	8,631,893
October,.....	3,913,283	697,384	4,610,667
Total,.....	$59,863,645	$10,008,660	$69,832,305

The fall trade did not meet the anticipation of the importers, and the imports of goods fell off very rapidly—notwithstanding which, the demand for bills, for remittance, continued good, and the rate of sterling bills firmly maintained. Money, however, being much higher in value in the United States than in England, leading houses were disposed to supply the market with bills at 10 per cent. From September to December, is usually the season of the year when the supply of bills is the smallest, and the demand the greatest. Therefore, if at any period of the year shipments of specie take place, it is in that quarter. At this juncture, the continued fall of cotton abroad occasioned a failure, and the return of some bills. These, although of small amount, and promptly taken, served to make remitters cautious of cotton bills, and rather disposed to give a higher rate for specie than to risk the inconvenience of return bills. The demand for remittance was also increased by the foreclosure of the Holland lien upon the Morris canal. This loan, amounting to $900,000, was contracted several years since, and secured by a mortgage upon the canal, and the whole franchise of the company. The canal cost over $4,000,000, and was sold out, under the foreclosure of this mortgage, for some $1,000,000, and purchased by some sagacious capitalists of New York, who appreciated the value of the work. The amount paid over to the Holland agent being promptly remitted, occasioned an important demand for bills at a moment when the supply was the most limited; and specie, to some extent, was sent forward, probably reaching an excess of export, for the year ending November, of $1,000,000. This rise in bills, and export of specie, took place simultaneously with the usual contraction of the New York banks, preparatory to making up their November returns, and also with a removal of the deposits of the federal government; which, having ranged as high as $6,000,000, were suddenly removed to other quarters, (mostly to Boston,) in alleged preparation for the redemption of the stock due in January, 1845. That stock consists as follows:—

Date of Loan.	Redeemable.	Rate of Interest.	Amount.
September, 1841,.....	January, 1845.	5½	$3,213,000
September, 1841,.....	January, 1845.	6	2,439,000
Total,.....			$5,652,000

This loan was taken mostly in New York and Boston, at a time when the government distress was very great, and when exchanges were adverse, in consequence of the large imports of the year ending September 30, 1841. During the past year, as is well known, the revenues have been large, and a considerable surplus has accumulated in banks; and, by official returns, has been distributed as follows:—

UNITED STATES DEPOSITS.

Banks.	June 24.	July 29.	Aug. 26.	Sept. 23.	Oct. 28.
New York,.....	$4,388,161	$5,274,229	$6,103,501	$6,335,135	$5,372,005
Boston,.....	1,516,585	1,403,321	1,772,685	1,989,116	2,138,297
Philadelphia,.....	688,843	944,254	1,036,885	917,125	927,711
Washington,.....	455,757	477,946	495,719	803,081	1,310,382
Corcoran & Rigg,...	.....	.....	.....	949,974	1,199,996
New Orleans,..	92,668	264,951	254,966	253,314	296,379
Detroit,.....	96,096	131,488	170,748	243,031	195,024
All other,.....	1,213,326	1,532,623	1,836,491	2,384,515	2,380,457
Total,.....	$8,747,463	$10,029,612	$11,520,995	$13,875,291	$13,820,251

In June, the New York banks held one-half the whole, which was less than their proportion; because the importers of New York pay into the federal treasury two-thirds of the whole customs. The duties so paid are an advance to the government, by the importers, of the duties intended to be levied upon the goods when consumed. It is money taken directly from the capital employed in commerce. If, therefore, a surplus accumulates beyond the immediate wants of commerce, it is clearly an act of justice that that surplus should be placed in a position to be re-loaned to those that paid it in. To do this in a just manner, the money should be deposited, *pro rata*, among all those banks of the city, the customers of which pay the duties. Instead of pursuing this evidently just and easy course, the department has placed the deposits with four banks, only—two chartered, and two free banks. The chartered banks are restricted in their loans, by a law of the state of New York, to a sum equal to twice and a half their capitals. The free banks are unrestricted. These deposits have been made as follows:—

UNITED STATES DEPOSITS IN NEW YORK CITY.

	Chartered Banks.			*Free Banks.*		
	B'k of Amer.	Merchants'.	Total.	B. Com'rce.	Am. Ex. B.	Total.
June 24,.....	$1,327,519	$1,066,890	$2,494,409	$1,870,472	$119,280	$1,989,750
July 29,.....	1,189,256	1,881,426	3,070,682	1,206,277	997,280	2,203,557
Aug. 26,.....	1,257,436	1,440,126	2,697,662	1,275,356	870,583	2,105,939
Sept. 23,.....	1,263,312	1,070,104	2,303,416	2,001,847	1,999,867	4,001,716
Oct. 28,.....	1,552,551	1,382,146	2,934,697	1,480,876	956,432	2,437,308

The amount with the two chartered banks has remained very uniform; while that with the free banks has fluctuated to a very great extent; probably owing to the fact that they were the recipients of the customs for August and September, when the duties were uncommonly large. The loans of these banks have been as follows:—

	Chartered.			*Free.*		
	B'k of Amer.	M'rchants'.	Total.	B'k Com'rce.	Am. Ex. Bk.	Total.
Capital,.....	$2,001,200	$1,490,000	$3,491,200	$3,271,000	$1,155,400	$4,426,400
July, 1841,.....	1,168,636	2,012,300	3,180,936	4,104,882	1,160,637	5,265,519
January, 1842,.	2,029,002	1,713,659	3,742,661	2,539,164	1,008,164	3,547,328
July, 1842,.....	1,890,106	1,811,000	3,701,106	4,476,139	1,374,382	5,850,521
January, 1843,.	3,058,149	1,960,923	5,019,072	2,777,997	1,458,904	4,236,901
August, 1843,..	3,646,443	3,786,240	7,432,683	2,848,265	2,349,175	5,198,440
Nov'r, 1843,....	3,213,398	3,637,713	6,851,111	3,005,514	2,457,597	5,463,111
February, 1844,	3,312,032	3,763,523	7,075,555	3,754,747	2,515,217	6,269,964
May, 1844,.....	4,037,292	3,763,713	7,801,005	4,602,942	2,614,846	7,217,788
August, 1844,..	4,566,147	3,768,323	8,334,470	3,918,658	2,861,320	6,779,978
Nov'r, 1844,....	4,384,852	3,381,354	7,766,206	4,275,113	2,821,979	7,097,092

The American Exchange bank became a deposit bank in July last; and it appears that, in September, the government deposits with the two free banks nearly equalled their ca-

pitals. The same was the case with the two chartered banks, in July and in October. The loans of these two latter banks, in August last, reached the utmost limits of the state laws, viz: twice and one-half the capitals. The deposits with the American Exchange bank, in August, exceeded its capital by 30 per cent. Now, when the deposits in an institution like this fluctuate from $119,280 to near $2,000,000, in three months, a convulsion in the market is inevitable, because such a bank will not receive the money without using it; and, by pouring $2,000,000 into one channel of business, it affects the price of money; and, when again withdrawn by government requisitions, distress is the result. Now, based upon government deposits, these four banks have, within the year, increased their loans 16 to 25 per cent. During the last quarter of the year, a competition sprang up among individuals and banks, for the possession of the public money. The four New York city deposit banks, at the close of the last session of Congress, procured the passage of a bill making them the exclusive depositories for the city of New York. Hence, as the surplus accumulated, near $4,000,000 was drawn from the city of New York, and placed elsewhere. It appears, in the above table, that the deposits at Washington increased from $455,000 in June, to $2,510,378 in October; of which amount, near one-half was deposited with an individual broker's house. At the same time, in consequence of reduced imports, the customs had considerably diminished. The means of the New York banks to sustain their loans were thus gradually diminished, until, in November, a considerable portion of the remaining deposits were removed to Boston, to meet that portion of the loan due in January. This removal of the deposits, contraction of the banks, and export of specie, occurred at a moment when the result of the elections had been such as to induce large sales of stocks, that had been previously purchased on speculation. These events produced a kind of panic, and stocks fell heavily; contributing to the gloomy feeling among a portion of the community, consequent upon the disappointment of the bright anticipations they had entertained from a different result of the elections.

The revenue and expenditure of the federal government, during the past year, have been, from official quarterly statements, as follows:—

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE OF THE UNITED STATES, FOR THE YEAR ENDING SEPT. 30, 1844.

	Six months, to April 1.	Quarter ending July 30.	Quarter ending Sept. 30.	Total.
Customs,	$11,470,416	$8,471,000	$10,750,000	$30,691,416
Lands,	1,137,814	500,500	450,000	2,088,314
Miscellaneous,	70,537	50,000	25,500	146,037
Loan of 1843,	4,241	.....	.....	4,241
Treasury notes,	1,919,800	25,000	.....	1,944,800
Total,	$14,602,798	$9,046,500	$11,225,500	$34,874,798
Expenses.				
Civil, mis., foreign,	$3,016,569	$1,280,778	$1,411,052	$5,708,399
Military,	3,621,513	1,692,978	3,277,996	7,592,487
Naval,	2,825,482	1,300,481	1,906,206	6,032,169
Interest of debt,	551,879	537,808	81,404	1,171,091
Paid loan of 1841,	.....	.....	234,600	234,600
Treas. notes and interest,	3,403,963	1,063,983	322,584	4,790,530
Total,	$13,419,406	$5,876,038	$7,233,844	$25,529,176
Excess revenue,	1,183,392	3,170,462	3,991,656	9,345,622

This abundant revenue was derived from the customs almost altogether, which continued large up to the close of September, being near $11,000,000 in the last quarter. The imports, however, then suddenly declined, and the receipts for October were about $1,400,000 only, or near $1,000,000 less than the current expenses. Should this rate of decrease continue, the available surplus, after paying the outstanding loans and treasury notes, will be *entirely absorbed; and, in* November, a farther falling off was manifest. The state of the *markets now, is by no means* such as to warrant a renewal of imports to any considerable

extent; and, therefore, the diminution of the revenue may lead to the modification of those duties which now act in a prohibitive manner. No great and radical change is to be apprehended in the general policy of the country. It is to be hoped that the great desideratum of permanency will be the object aimed at; and, to attain it, it is undoubtedly necessary that such portions, if any there be, of the present regulations, as are ultra in their general character, should be modified; taking great care not to run into the opposite extreme, in order to induce renewed clamor for change. With these single exceptions, we do not see anything in the political horizon likely to interfere with the general advance in commercial prosperity. So far as Mexico is concerned, its government is in some shape bound to its people to retake Texas. The executive, a military chief, depending upon his popularity, is placed in an awkward position, when his whole power is unequal to the conquest of a revolted province. The annexation of that province to a powerful neighbor is, therefore, to him, only an extrication from a difficult position. On the other hand, it is known that Great Britain has long been insidiously advancing to the possession of Cuba. France is continually extending itself in Africa; and the advance of the United States boundary to Mexico proper, may be looked upon as a good pretext for the acquisition of Cuba, by England, either by purchase or otherwise—an event which would, indeed, involve serious consequences. It is, however, remote in its results, and dependent for its consummation upon many contingencies. Cuba is the garden of the world; and, under an independent, republican government, would ultimately rival even England, in power and wealth. Its resources are now drawn from it in tribute to its European oppressors, to the extent of some $5,000,000 per annum; an operation which, in time, would exhaust even the exorbitant wealth of Britain. The progress of Cuba has, notwithstanding, been as follows, in the last 14 years:—

Years.	Imports.	Exports.	Tot. im. and ex.	Customs.	Pop.
1826,.....	$14,925,754	$13,809,838	$28,735,592	$3,244,000	704,487
1842,.....	24,637,527	26,684,701	51,322,228	6,005,632	1,008,694
Increase,....	$9,711,773	$12,874,863	$22,586,636	$2,761,632	303,137

The currency of the island is metallic, and its quantity may be estimated from the fact that, in 1841, the government, to remedy the evils incident upon a depreciated currency, passing at a nominal value, called in all the outstanding pistareens, and stamped them to pass at five to the dollar, instead of four to the dollar. The amount called in in consequence, was as follows:—

	At Havana.	Principe.	Santiago.	Total.
Received,.....	$3,413,531	$963,840	$775,717	$6,153,088
Paid out,.....	2,761,512	794,321	632,507	4,188,340
Loss,.....	$652,019	$169,519	$143,210	$964,748

The excess of imports over exports, of the precious metals, for the eleven years, up to 1843, was as follows:—

	Imports.	Exports.	Excess exp'ts.	Excess imp.
Gold,.....	$9,543,876	$3,077,487	.....	$6,466,389
Silver,.....	7,107,818	7,617,599	$509,781	.....
Total,...	$16,651,694	$10,795,086	.....	$5,856,608

This excess of imports, added to the pistareens, gives a currency of $10,044,948. There was probably two to three millions of gold in the island when this table of imports commenced; in which case, the coin of the island would be full $12,000,000, or $24 per head of the free population—an immense proportion. The United States has progressed, in the same time, in the following proportion:—

Years.	Import.	Export.	Total.	Customs.	Populatios.
1826,.....	$84,974,477	$77,595,322	$162,569,799	$26,093,373	11,392,423
1842,.....	100,162,087	104,691,534	104,853,621	15,865,913	18,264,514
Increase,.....	$15,187,614	$27,096,212	$42,283,822	.....	6,872,091
Decrease,....	.....	.....	.....	$10,227,460	.....

The population of the United States increased in a greater proportion than that of Cuba; but the wealth of Cuba, which consists in its exportable productions, increased nearly 100 per cent, while those of the United States increased but 30 per cent. The population of the United States is now 19,000,000, and the specie in the country has been estimated as low as $80,000,000. It is, however, fully $100,000,000, or $6 per head for the free population—about one-fourth that of Cuba. This comparison serves to show the vast and growing importance of the island of Cuba, and the great temptation it presents to the proverbially grasping ambition of England; whose emissaries, last spring, convulsed the island by their machinations, and brought hundreds of their wretched dupes to the scaffold. The possession of Texas by the United States will be resisted by England only to enhance the importance of the precedent, when events shall have given her the opportunity to seize Cuba. This attempt will lead to difficulties that are now remote, and cannot be brought to bear upon the current of commercial events. The reckless and unscrupulous ambition of English statesmen will lead them to make the attempt; but the onward progress of human liberty and popular rights must prevent Cuba from becoming the vassal of England, when it shall have cast off the yoke of Spain. The internal natural wealth and resources of Cuba are equal to those of England; and time, and good government, will make it her equal—not her vassal.

Apart from political movements, everything presents the appearance of a more lasting season of greater prosperity than ever before in this country. Its actual capital is greater —the commercial debts of individuals, at home and abroad, were never less. The means of internal communication are numerous, cheap, and continually improving. There exist no systematic means by which immense imports of goods can be made for successive years, until the accumulated credits burst in an avalanche, sweeping everything to insolvency. On the other hand, produce of all kinds is exceedingly abundant, and at prices which cannot now well be decreased; while the state of affairs in Europe is such as to warrant the expectation of a largely increased consumption of American produce. Nothing is more indicative of reviving trade, and increased consumption of goods in England, than the improvement in indirect taxes, or those taxes imposed on consumable goods. These are of two classes—the customs duties, or those levied upon foreign goods brought into the country; and excise, or internal taxes, levied upon articles produced in England. Whenever, through a failure of the crops, money becomes scarce, and the demand for labor diminished, the consumption of these articles is lessened, and the government revenue sensibly affected. In the years 1836–38, the revenues of Great Britain yielded a surplus. The failure of the harvest of 1838 immediately wrought a change, and there was a yearly deficit so large, as to induce the imposition of new duties, estimated to yield £5,000,000 per annum. From the causes mentioned, however, viz: diminished consumption of the dutiable articles, the taxes failed to increase the revenue. In the succeeding year, the government was compelled to resort to the unpopular expedient of a direct tax upon incomes, which has yielded the desired amount; and during the last year, in consequence of the improving state of business generally, a surplus has again been produced, and appropriated to the payment of the public debt. The progress of the taxes has been as follows:—

REVENUES OF GREAT BRITAIN.

Years.	Customs.	Excise.	Taxes.	Prop. Tax.	Stamps.
1836,.....	£23,045,668	£15,719,423	£2,722,601	none.	£7,350,377
1839,.....	22,365,340	14,750,521	2,718,847	none.	7,212,488
1841,.....	19,485,217	12,868,014	4,389,692	none.	6,687,575
1842,.....	19,656,495	12,124,566	4,297,439	£313,844	6,547,863
1843,.....	18,520,340	11,786,044	4,207,792	5,052,057	6,464,256
1844,.....	20,243,505	11,959,942	4,204,855	5,258,470	6,533,385

A very marked *improvement is* perceptible in the customs, and the excise has again *resumed its upward tendency,* after the important decline of 20 per cent since 1839, show-

ing a very great improvement in the condition of the people, generally—an indication of a continued increased consumption of manufactured goods. The exports of British manufactures have been still more marked, as follows:—

EXPORTS OF BRITISH MANUFACTURES FROM GREAT BRITAIN.

	1841.	1842.	1843.	1844.
Coals and culm,.....	£451,209	£556,676	£476,260.	£417,095
Cotton manufactures,.....	11,038,895	9,410,035	10,702,438	12,792,034
" yarn,.....	4,599,976	4,909,030	4,760,443	4,733,764
Earthenware,.....	413,618	382,451	405,134	528,436
Glass,.....	312,740	216,494	230,273	275,947
Hardwares and cutlery,.....	1,129,455	934,268	1,099,766	1,438,298
Linen manufactures,.....	2,379,910	1,640,268	1,852,709	2,111,821
" yarn,.....	622,474	703,933	571,249	664,730
Iron and steel,.....	1,996,483	1,742,280	1,700,703	2,326,828
Copper and brass,.....	1,021,441	1,197,848	1,153,729	1,214,198
Lead, ...	132,771	243,957	200,225	204,271
Tin, in bars,.....	30,076	127,681	77,084	47,123
Tin plate,.....	257,559	238,065	273,827	344,564
Silk manufactures,.....	585,648	415,764	448,088	547,164
Sugar, refined,.....	371,725	295,277	272,779	230,892
Wool, sheep and lamb's,....	374,313	351,146	283,199	377,048
Woollen yarn,.....	299,086	350,223	371,991	612,393
Woollen manufactures,.....	4,177,187	3,461,707	4,574,212	6,152,880
Total, to Sept. 5,.....	£30,404,468	£27,177,123	£29,456,109	£35,019,488
" Aug. 5,.....	25,965,693	23,407,117	25,269,977	29,630,439
Month of August,.....	£4,438,775	£3,770,006	£4,186,132	£5,389,049

The business for the month of August was 25 per cent larger than even in the year 1841. The most marked improvement has been in woollen and cotton goods. The progress of the exports of cotton goods and yarns has been as follows:—

	1841.	1842.	1843.	1844.
First six months,.....	£11,199,736	£10,506,378	£11,282,826	£12,107,444
July,.....	2,356,797	1,864,651	2,045,663	2,577,631
August,.....	2,082,338	1,948,036	2,134,387	2,840,723
Total, 8 months,.....	£15,638,871	£14,319,065	£15,462,876	£17,525,798

The exports of cotton goods have, it appears, for the last eighteen months, continually increased; having risen from an average of £1,860,435, in the first six months of 1843, to £2,840,723, in the month of August. The raw cotton taken for consumption has, in the meantime, been as follows:—

COTTON TAKEN FOR CONSUMPTION IN GREAT BRITAIN.

	1841.	1842.	1843.	1844.
British possessions,.....lbs.	33,068,866	45,571,026	30,315,405	43,378,403
Foreign,.....	282,847,171	312,223,404	430,774,458	359,133,720
Total,.....	315,916,037	357,794,430	461,089,863	402,512,123

Notwithstanding the largely increased consumption of cottons, the purchases of the spinners, it appears, have been less than last year—a fact which would indicate that the stocks in spinners' hands must be very low, and that they must soon recommence the purchases; and, with the abundance of money there, a rise in prices may be expected.

MERCANTILE LAW DEPARTMENT.

UNITED STATES CIRCUIT COURT, (NEW YORK,) BEFORE JUDGE BETTS.

EDWARD WIGHT, WILLIAM STURGIS, AND WILLIAM SHAW, *vs.* EDWARD CURTIS.

No act of Congress having designated any form or mode of proof to be made, of damage to goods on the voyage of importation, to lay the foundation for an appraisement, the collector is bound to order it on reasonable evidence of such damage.

If he does not object to the form of proof when presented, he cannot raise such objection at the time when sued for not calling such appraisement.

A request to the collector to have an appraisement by merchants, appointed pursuant to the act of 1799, is to be regarded an application to have it made according to the existing law.

The 52d section of the act of March 2, 1799, does not require a survey of goods, damaged on the voyage of importation, to be made previous to an appraisement of damages for the purpose of an abatement of duties.

If such survey is necessary, the master and wardens of the port are not "the proper officers," within the meaning of the act, to make it.

After a collector has ordered goods to a public store, because of damage on the voyage of importation, he has no authority to require a survey of such goods, in order to their appraisement.

When an appraisement is refused, the deterioration of the goods may be proved by witnesses; and the collector is liable, in an action for damages, to pay the difference between the duties exacted by him, and those the goods ought to have been charged with.

In the decision of this case, I shall forbear the review of several topics, discussed with great fulness and learning. Under the construction I give the 52d section of the act of 1799, it does not become necessary to consider the origin of the powers of the port-wardens of this port, or the just extent of those powers under the statutes of the state, or the convenience or fitness of the usage prevailing with the custom-house here, to call for their official certificates in cases of goods damaged on the voyage of importation, for which a deduction of duties shall be claimed; nor to investigate and determine the right of marine surveyors, under private appointment, to perform that service.

The facts presenting the question in contestation between the parties, are, that the ship Sheffield, when coming into this port in November, 1843, and in charge of a pilot, grounded in a heavy wind, and filled and sunk. She was subsequently raised, and towed to the city, and her cargo unladen; and, by consent, and at the instance of the parties interested, it was ordered by the collector to be deposited in a public store-house. The dutiable goods of the libellants, on board the ship, were damaged by sea-water on the occasion, to the amount of 60 per cent on their value. The libellants produced certificates of the port-wardens of surveys of all their packages, except one; and asked, and had allowed them by the collector, an appraisement of the damages so incurred by those packages. In respect to the package in question, the libellants offered to the collector the sworn survey and appraisement of Alexander Cartwright, (representing himself to be a person "selected by the parties interested, to survey, appraise, arbitrate, and judge of vessels and goods arriving damaged, or becoming damaged in the port of Yew York,") certifying that he had taken a strict and careful survey of the goods in question, and found them to have been damaged on the voyage of importation. Also, the deposition of the master of the ship, proving the wreck, and injury to the cargo in consequence.

An exception was taken, on the argument, to the admissibility of this deposition, because the attestation was taken before a state magistrate, not authorized to administer oaths to be used in the United States tribunals. I think this objection cannot prevail; for the attestation on oath, to such a document, is not required by any act of Congress; and if it had been, the collector should have refused to receive the affidavit, because of defect of

authority in the officer taking the oath, so that the irregularity might have been rectified at the time; and he cannot be permitted to start the objection on the final argument. His acceptance of the deposition will be deemed a waiver of any informality in the jurat, particularly as the paper was addressed to him, and was to have no other operation than to guide the decision on the claim of the importer to have his goods appraised.

The collector, by his letter of November 23, 1843, to the plaintiffs, stated that, according to the instructions which he had received from the Secretary of the Treasury, the certificate of damage must be given by a port-warden; and added "that, if within ten days after the landing of the goods, such certificate shall be presented, orders will be given for an appraisement." The particular certificate not being furnished, the appraisement was refused, and the libellants paid the full duties charged ($103 14) on this package, making their protest at the time, and then brought this action in a state court, to recover back 60 per cent thereof, (being $67 05,) with interest from November 25, 1843. The action was removed to this Court pursuant to the act of Congress of March 3, 1833, (8 Laws U. S., 792, sec. 3.)

A letter of the Secretary of the Treasury, dated July 13, 1843, to the collector, ratified his decision in a previous case, rejecting the certificate of damage given by the marine surveyors appointed by the Chamber of Commerce and Board of Underwriters of the port of New York, and approved the practice of requiring the certificate of damage to be given by the port-wardens, as not only in accordance with the 52d section of the act of 1799, but as that which most nearly conforms with its provisions.

Some criticism was addressed on the argument, to forms of the proofs of damage; and their sufficiency to establish the fact was questioned—but, as the objection on the trial referred essentially to their admissibility, and the fact and extent of damage was not made a prominent point, I shall regard the testimony, if competent, sufficient to have justified the jury in finding for the plaintiffs; and the Court, on a case made, will draw the same inferences from the evidence that a jury would be warranted in drawing. (14 Johns., 215. 15 ib., 409. 6 Cowen, 632.)

It was also suggested that the collector rightfully refused the request of the plaintiffs, because they asked the appointment of merchant appraisers, conformably to the act of 1799, when the act of 1823 had abolished that mode of appraisement, and designated official appraisers, who alone possessed authority to make this appraisement. This was clearly a mere misapprehension in the form of application—a mistake which the collector did not regard; for he avowed his readiness to act under the application, on being furnished the particular certificate he required; and, accordingly, the error of the plaintiffs, in the designation of the appraising officers, can stand in no way against their rights in the matter. The Court will regard it as the collector did—a request to have the appraisement made conformably with the law.

The essential question to be disposed of is, then, whether the plaintiffs, on the facts and circumstances of this case, were bound to produce a certificate of the port-wardens before an appraisement and a deduction of duties, because of such damages, could be claimed by them. This inquiry turns upon the construction to be given the 52d section of the act of March 2, 1799. It enacts that all goods, wares, or merchandise, of which entry shall be made incomplete, or without the specification of particulars, either for want of the original invoice or invoices, or for any other cause, or which shall have received damage during the voyage, to be ascertained by the proper officers of the port or district in which the said goods, wares, or merchandise shall arrive, shall be conveyed to some warehouse or storehouse, to be designated by the collector, in the parcels or packages containing the same; there to remain, with due and reasonable care, at the expense and risk of the owner or consignee, under the care of some proper officer, until the particulars, cost, or value, as the case may require, shall have been ascertained, either by the exhibition of the original

invoice or invoices thereof, or by appraisement, at the option of the owner, importer, or consignee, in manner hereafter provided; and until the duties thereon shall have been paid, or secured to be paid, and a permit granted by the collector for the delivery thereof. And for the appraisement of goods, wares, and merchandise, not accompanied with the original invoice of their cost, or to ascertain the damage thereon received during the voyage, it shall be lawful for the collector, and, upon request of the party, he is required, to appoint one merchant, and the owner, importer, or consignee, to appoint another, who shall appraise or value the said goods, wares, or merchandise, accordingly; which appraisement shall be subscribed by the parties making the same, and be verified on oath or affirmation, before said collector—which oath or affirmation shall be in the form following, to wit," &c., &c.

The usage at the custom-house, under this section, has always been, to exact a certificate preliminarily to ordering an appraisement on damaged goods; and the wardens of the port have been held "the proper officers" to give such certificates. On the part of the plaintiffs, it is contended that the act supplies no authority for either of these requirements. The section recited directs goods, wares, and merchandise, to be conveyed to some warehouse or storehouse, on arriving in port, in either of two conditions:—First, when the entry of them shall be made incomplete, for any cause; and, second, when they "shall have received damage during the voyage, to be ascertained by the proper officers," &c. In the first instance, it is plain, the collector acts on his own view of the state of the entry, and without any extraneous evidence; but as, in the second instance, the cause for ordering the goods to a public store would not be apparent on the entry, or one which the collector would be supposed prepared to decide on his own inspection, there would seem to be the occasion for designating by law the circumstances which would require or authorize the order. This designation is supposed to be supplied by the statute.

The terms employed in the act may probably admit this construction; and if the first clause is read by itself, such might be its more natural interpretation, because the inquiry which is to lead to the action of the collector, is, whether the goods have received damage during the voyage; and the expression, "to be ascertained by the proper officers," might well be regarded as having reference to the general proposition or idea of damage during the voyage," and not to damage simply in respect to its amount or extent. But the same expression is again taken up in the subsequent clause of the section; and Congress, by the application of it there, would seem to regard the language as calling for a valuation of damages, and not merely the finding of the fact that damage had been received. This understanding of its import is again distinctly indicated in the form of the oath; for the appraisers are required to swear that "the packages have received damage, as we believe, during the voyage of importation; and that the allowance by us made for such damage is, to the best of our skill and judgment, just."

It is not to be supposed that Congress would, in this clause and the oath, impose on appraisers the duty of ascertaining the fact of damage during the voyage, if, by the previous clause, other officers were appointed to perform that very service; and it seems to me that the entire section, taken with the form of oath, denotes that it was intended to provide for no more than one ascertainment of damage in this behalf; and that, in this respect, the first clause in the section is to be considered subordinate to, or more completely fulfilled by the subsequent one. Although the language may be susceptible, and most naturally, of the interpretation given it by the collector, and the Secretary of the Treasury, yet plainly no violence is done it, by understanding it in the other sense; and the latter would most effectually harmonize all the provisions of the section. In aid of this exposition, it is to be observed that the language is prospective, having relation to an act afterwards to be done, and that not necessarily before the action of the collector, in ordering *the goods to a public store.* "Damage to be ascertained," and "to ascertain the damage,"

are correlative expressions, and indicate one and the same procedure; and that they are so used by Congress, is plainly imported by the terms of the oath, "to ascertain and appraise the damage." This latter act must necessarily follow the deposit of the goods in a public store; and the language of the first section may very well be satisfied, even on the interpretation of the defendant, by having the survey posterior to the deposit in store. If, then, this ascertainment of damages by proper officers must not indispensably be had, previous to the deposit of the goods, and as the statute having provided for only one proceeding therein, subseqent to such deposit, the entire section would most appropriately be read as having reference to the one act of ascertaining and appraising, designated and directed in the latter clause.

I think, therefore, that, upon the true construction of the 52d section, the damage received during the voyage to be ascertained by the proper officers of the port or district, mentioned in the first clause, is the same matter directed to be inquired into and determined in the after branch of this section; and that, accordingly, there is no authority in the act for requiring any other survey or appraisement.

A more minute analysis of the terms of the section will conduce to the support of this construction. If the provisions of the first clause call for a survey of the goods, by proper officers, as it is understood at the custom-house, it stands in singular contrast with the after provision in that respect, in not naming the officers who are to perform the duty; in not exacting the sanction of an oath from them; and in not rendering it obligatory on the collector to take the proceedings. The importer is supplied with no authority to compel the action of the collector; and if the first branch of the section is read as complete within itself, it would seem that the merchant is placed entirely at the discretion of the collector, or can have no relief because of his refusal to call a survey, and the consequent deterioration of his property, unless through the tedious and precarious prosecution of the collector, for mal-feasance in his office.

Congress deemed the matter worthy of precise legislation, when they came to consider the equitable consequence of such injury to goods, on the rights of the importer and the interests of the revenue; and provided specifically for enforcing and preserving their respective interests, by clear and precise enactments in the after branch of the same section. Such incongruity would be reluctantly implied in the provisions of the same section; and the construction, therefore, which regards the whole subject matter one and the same, and as provided for in a common regulation, seems best adapted to uphold the rights of all parties, and fulfil the purposes of Congress.

This same course is pursued in the 60th section, in relation to vessels coming into port in distress. The regulation is minute and specific, in the description of the officers who may make surveys, and as to the time and manner in which kindred services are to be obtained and rendered; and, whether state officers or merchant appraisers are employed, the act points out definitely when and how they are to act. This latter section supplies also a forcible argument against the application of the term "proper officers," used in the 52d section, to port-wardens; because it names them, or calls for other state officers, "usually charged with, and accustomed to ascertain the condition of ships or vessels arriving in distress."

It is not to be supposed, if Congress adopted in the previous section "port-wardens," under the general appellation of "proper officers," as well known to possess and exercise within the states the functions there called for, that in legislating further, on like subject matters, they would, in the 60th section, name them specifically, or describe the qualifications of the other officers who might be used. But it is to be remarked that the term "proper officers" is twice used in the same paragraph of the 52d section; and, in the latter case, must necessarily refer to some custom-house officer, or one appointed under

the authority of the revenue laws, because he is officially to take care of the goods ordered by the collector to be taken in store.

It is not unworthy of observation, that the phrase, "proper officers of the port or district in which the goods, &c., shall arrive," does not apply to any public officers known to the laws of this state at the time the act of Congress was passed; nor is it probable that such officers were created in any of the other states.

The powers of port-wardens do not, under the colonial or state statutes, extend beyond the port of New York, (Act March 7, 1759; 2 Smith and Livingston, 160; Act 14th April, 1784, 1 Greenl., 86,) whereas the district of New York was, by the fifth section of the act of Congress of March 2, 1799, (as it had been by the act of July 31, 1789,) made to embrace nearly all the coasts, rivers, bays, and harbors of the southern part of the state, including those on the North river.

The city of New York is, in the act of 1789, and all subsequent ones, made the port of entry; but it is manifest that there must be officers created under the acts whose powers extend over the entire district. It may be as important to have proper officers of the revenue in other harbors on the coast within the district, to take care of goods deposited there by the collector, as in that of New York; and it may become of equal importance to have appraisements made at such places, because the whole regulation has reference to wreck or disasters at sea, and will necessarily be ample enough to meet the exigencies that are likely to rise in this behalf, in every part of the district.

Again: the argument in favor of construing the 52d section, so as to have the expressions "proper officers of the port or district" apply to port-wardens, rests upon the assumption that that class of officers notoriously possessed and exercised, under the state laws of the different states, the power of making surveys of goods alleged to be damaged on the voyage of importation, and determining the fact whether such damage has been received. There may be ground to doubt the entire correctness of this assumption. By the colonial act of March 7, 1759, section 9, the master and wardens of the port of New York, for the time being, are appointed surveyors, for surveying of all damaged goods brought into the said port in any ship or vessel; and in like manner, with the assistance of one or more able carpenters, to survey all vessels deemed unfit to proceed to sea, &c. (2 Livings. and Smith, 163.)

An act was passed September 11, 1761, with a preamble that "whereas goods imported here, and insured in Great Britain, and elsewhere abroad, are sometimes sold in this city for the account of the insurers, and some persons, taking the advantage of their absence, have frequently made fraudulent sales, to the great prejudice of the insurers, the undue gain of the assured, and detriment of the commerce of this colony: for a remedy therefor, it is enacted, that hereafter, all damaged goods to be sold for account of the insurers shall be surveyed by the master, or one or more of the wardens of the port of New York for the time being, and such sale shall be made in his or their presence, &c., &c. (Van Schaick's ed. Laws N. Y., 394.) This act was continued in force to January 1, 1775, (Ibid., 498.)

If this act is to be regarded as suspending or superseding that of 1759, during its continuance, on its expiration, the latter probably revived; and, under the 35th article of the state constitution, of April 20, 1777, continued in force until the passage of the act of April 14, 1784, by the state legislature. The 8th section of the latter act is a re-enactment of the 9th section of the act of 1759, above recited. (Jones and Varick, L. N. Y., 122. 1 Greenlf., 89.) The latter law, in substance, was continued under the various revisions of the statutes, till a revision and consolidation of the laws on this subject, by the act of February 19, 1813. (5 Laws N. Y., 11.) By the 5th section of the act, it is enacted that the master and wardens of the port of New York, or any two of them, with *the assistance of one or more skilful carpenters*, shall be surveyors of any vessel deemed

unfit to proceed to sea, &c., &c.; and in all cases of vessels and goods arriving damaged, and by the owner or consignee required to be sold at public auction, on account of such damage, and for the benefit of underwriters out of the city of New York, such sale shall be made under the inspection of the master and wardens, or some or one of them; which master and wardens shall, when required by the owner or consignee aforesaid, certify the cause of such damage, &c.; and an after clause gives them $1 50 fees "for each and every survey on board of any ship or vessel, or at any store, or along the docks of the city of New York, on damaged goods," &c.

This is, in substance, a re-enactment of the provisions of the colonial law of 1761, above recited; and the language of the section clearly indicates that it was based upon like reasons—and, as the existing law of 1784 must necessarily have been in view of the legislature, the implication is strong, if not conclusive, that the latter act was intended to limit the authority of port-wardens, in making surveys of damaged goods, to the single case therein designated.

I am aware the vice-chancellor in this circuit has put a different construction upon the act of 1819, and has held, from the grant of fees for surveys on damaged goods, that the intention of the legislature to make the powers of port-wardens the same they had been under the act of 1784, is to be implied. This decision, it is understood, is in course of review before the chancellor, and it is not, therefore, to be regarded as authoritative on the point; and, with great respect for the learning of the distinguished judge who pronounced the opinion referred to, I think it must be at least matter of doubt whether so important an interpolation to the act of 1819 can be authorized, upon the presumption afforded by the mere grant of fees, and when also that provision may be reasonably satisfied by applying it to the particular surveys designated by the section. It is enough, however, in the case before me, to say that it is not made clear, upon the laws of this state, that the port-wardens are now possessed of authority to make surveys on all damaged goods brought into this port in any vessels, and certify the cause of such damage; and that, accordingly, if Congress intended to refer this service to state officers, the defendant fails to show that the port-wardens are "the proper officers of the port or district," competent to perform such services.

But it is to be furthermore observed that, on the construction of the 52d section, contended for by the defendant, a preliminary survey and certificate by port-wardens can only be necessary for the purpose of guiding his discretion in ordering the goods to be deposited in a warehouse or storehouse. It is not urged that the port-wardens have any authority to ascertain and appraise the damage; and there is nothing in the section importing that after the collector, for either cause indicated therein, has commanded the deposit of goods, that he can do less or more, respecting them, than pursue the precise directions of the act. The act is express and explicit in declaring that, when the condition exists requiring the goods to be conveyed to a warehouse or storehouse, they shall remain there until the particulars, &c., shall have been ascertained, in the manner afterwards provided in the same section.

It seems to me clear, therefore, that if the collector might, under the act, exact the certificate of a proper officer on survey of the goods, before he would order their deposit in public store, because of damage incurred on the voyage of importation; yet that, if he acts upon the assumption of such damage, and orders the deposit for that cause, he is then bound to proceed, and have the damage ascertained and appraised by the public appraisers; who, by the act of 1823, supersede in this behalf the authority of merchant appraisers, referred to in the 52d section. I am, accordingly, of opinion that the plaintiffs are entitled to judgment on this verdict.

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

TOBACCO TRADE OF VIRGINIA,

FOR THE LAST TEN YEARS, FROM 1835 TO 1844.

A Statement showing the quantity of Tobacco inspected in Virginia for ten years past, say from 1835 to 1844; the quantity exported, and the markets to which it was shipped; the stocks left on hand on the 1st of October of each year, and likewise the quantity of Stems shipped during the same period, and the markets to which they were shipped.

A. D.	England, Scotland, and Ireland.		Cowes, and a market.	France.	Bremen.		Holland.		Antwerp.		Italy, Spain, and sundries.		Shipped.		Insp'd.	Stock.
		Tobacco.	Stems.	Tobacco.	Tobacco.	Stems.	Tobacco.	Stems.	Tobacco.	Stems.	Tobacco.	Stems.	Total tobacco.	Tot. st'ms.	Tobacco.	Tobacco.
1835..	17,021	2,185	656	4.131	1,077	1,017	785	578	400	—	270	—	25.871	2.251	47,520	15,801
1836..	15,243	3,997	710	5,166	800	1,636	977	840	1,455	—	2,084	—	29,722	3.186	45.445	14,624
1837..	9,555	2,028	378	2,387	1,221	1,970	2,542	1,924	536	60	794	—	18,991	4,332	38,201	10,475
1838..	12,321	1,170	—	4.743	616	1,908	319	128	925	—	734	—	20,828	2,036	44.845	12,397
1839..	13,359	2,463	738	1.115	236	2,317	1,236	919	329	57	—	—	18,729	4.031	28,502	4,896
1840..	12,928	1,054	—	5,284	1,153	876	3,823	1,177	2,023	136	1,621	—	27,195	2,189	58,186	13,829
1841..	16,563	2,785	—	7,395	1,531	3,843	2,497	2,013	2,026	218	1,672	—	34 442	6,076	56,141	8,719
1842..	18,655	2,818	556	3.747	4,573	2,294	7,637	395	1,830	—	1,515	—	32,765	3,245	52,156	11,109
1843..	11,424	5,470	—	4,098	3,013	1,543	6,975	321	4,814	—	512	136	36,236	2,000	56,788	13,420
1844..	6,961	1,075	—	605	5,165	1,935	3,810	689	1,817	—	1,061	63	20,494	2,687	45,886	14,363

To the Editor of the Merchants' Magazine:—

I refer you to the above tabular statement of the tobacco trade of Virginia. By reference to this table, you will find that the export for the year ending 30th ultimo, is the smallest made in any year during the last ten years, excepting those of 1837 and 1839, and the export to Great Britain far less than it was even in those years. Indeed, the export of last year to Great Britain is the smallest for many years, unless we include the period of the war, when the trade between this country and Great Britain was, of course, interrupted. Of this export to Great Britain, only about 3,500 hhds. of stemmed tobacco, and 700 hhds. of leaf tobacco, were of the last crop. The remainder of the shipment was composed of old tobacco, of the previous crops.

To France, but a single cargo has been sent this year; the agent of the contractor for the supply of that government not deeming it to the interest of his principal, under his existing orders, to comply with the contract, in consequence of the high price which good and fine tobacco commanded, and the difficulty or impossibility of procuring good and fine tobacco at any price, because of the inferiority in the quality of the crop.

The table does not present the true quantity (ship) of tobacco and stems shipped to Bremen. Several cargoes, destined for that port, were sent round to northern ports for direct re-shipment; and although this was chiefly the case with shipments destined for Bremen, yet, in a limited way, those circuitous shipments, for various reasons, were made to other European ports. We give, in those tables, the direct shipments only.

Of the stock of 14,363 hhds. tobacco, now ascertained to be in the warehouses in this state, there are about 1,000 hhds. belonging to planters, and not yet offered for sale; and the manufacturers are supposed to hold about 1,500 hhds. The factors have on hand, for sale, about 3,000 hhds., and speculators and shippers the remainder; a large portion of which is held by capitalists, awaiting a favorable change in the tide of prices. In the whole quantity on hand, there are about 8,000 hhds. of lugs and low leaf; the remainder, *common and middling leaf.* There is scarcely any good or fine tobacco in stock.

The crop of tobacco just matured, and maturing, is generally estimated at 40,000 hhds.

and in this opinion I concur. As to the quality of the crop, there is no doubt of its being far superior, in the main, to any of its predecessors, for many years past.

Our manufacturers have done a large and profitable business the past year, and it is supposed will increase their operations the year to come. Under this impression, it is generally believed that prices next year will rule comparatively dear; for the stock on hand being mean, and the crop small, and the manufacturers requiring fully 20,000 hhds., there will be but a small quantity of useful tobacco left to supply the remaining regular demand for Virginia tobacco.

At present, there is nothing doing in tobacco. Flour, $4 25. The crop of wheat yields poorly, and falls short of all the estimates; yet the crop is a fair average one, and of excellent quality. The crop of Indian corn is an average one.

I remain, dear sir, truly yours,

CHARLES F. OSBORNE.

Richmond, (Va.,) October 1, 1844.

SPERM OIL TRADE OF THE UNITED STATES.

An "Oil Merchant," at New Bedford, the port most extensively engaged in this branch of productive commercial industry, has furnished some interesting statistics in relation to the importation of sperm oil at the several ports in the United States, which have been carefully revised from a comparison with several different accounts, kept by some of the most intelligent merchants engaged in the whale fishery, for many years past, in order to ascertain, as exactly as possible, the quantity of crude oil that has arrived, and is to arrive in the United States, in 1844; the amount now on hand; and the number of barrels to arrive in 1845.

The average annual importations of crude sperm oil, for the last nine years, is 157,000 barrels.

The importations, in 1843, were	167,421 bbls.
There remained over from the year 1842, and on hand January 1st, 1844,	50,000 "
	217,421 bbls.
Deduct the quantity remaining on hand, for sale, on 1st January, 1844,	3,000 "
	214,421 bbls.

Showing that there was actually taken by manufacturerers, and shipped out of the country, 214,421 bbls. of crude sperm oil, in the year 1843.

There arrived into the United States, up to the 1st October, of the present year,	114,000 bbls.
And there will arrive, as near as possibly can be computed, in the remainder of this year,	16,000 "
Whole importation for the year 1844, of crude sperm oil,	130,000 bbls.

Number of barrels taken from importers, by manufacturers, and for shipment abroad, in 1843,	214,421 bbls.
Quantity on hand, and imported in 1844,	133,000 "
	81,421 bbls.

Making 81,421 bbls. short of what was imported, and on hand, in 1843.

There is another interesting feature in the state of the sperm oil market, in regard to the average for nine years, as follows:—

The average importation, for nine years past, has been	157,000 bbls.
Deduct the quantity imported for 1844,	130,000 "
	27,000 bbls.

There will, therefore, have been imported this year, 27,000 barrels of natural sperm oil, less than the average for the last nine years. The quantity of crude sperm oil on hand, for sale, in this country, is much less than usual at this season; while, at the same time, our manufacturers are very scantily supplied, there being only two out of the twenty-one manufacturing establishments in New Bedford and Fair Haven, who have much stock, and eleven of them have no crude sperm oil whatever. It is estimated, by those engaged in the sperm whale fishery, and who, for years, have been in the practice of making calculations in regard to this fishery, that there will be many thousand barrels less imported in 1845 than in all this year.

Let it be remembered that, during a greater portion of the last nine years referred to above, the business of this country has been very much depressed; and, owing to the stagnation in all the manufacturing districts, oil was not in such demand as it has been for the last eighteen months; in which period the consumption has greatly increased, and will continue to, in case the prosperity of the manufacturing interest is not overthrown by a change of the tariff of 1842.

TRADE AND NAVIGATION OF ENGLAND,

FOR THE YEARS ENDING 5TH OF JANUARY, 1843 AND 1844.

We have received, from a valued correspondent in London, the documents annually "presented to Parliament by Her Majesty's command," embracing accounts of the imports of the principal articles of foreign and colonial merchandise, and the custom duties received thereon; the exports of the principal articles of British and Irish produce and manufactures; the gross and nett produce of the duties of customs; the number and tonnage of vessels, distinguishing the countries to which they belonged, which entered inwards and cleared outwards; the number of vessels, &c., employed in the coasting trade of the United Kingdom—all for the year ending 5th of January, 1844, compared with the year ending 5th of January, 1843. This document, which is laid before Parliament early in January of each year, is usually printed and distributed before the 15th of February, of the same year. It only occupies eight foolscap pages, and presents a very comprehensive glance of the commerce of the last year, as compared with the previous. This promptness is worthy of the imitation of our Treasury department, at Washington. In our introduction to the annual statements of the Commerce and Navigation of the United States for 1843, we referred to this subject, and expressed the hope that Mr. Bibb, the new Secretary of the Treasury, would take measures to lessen the time that intervenes between the close of the commercial year and the appearance of the annual statements. The present commercial year, our readers are aware, commenced on the 1st of July, instead of the 1st of October, as heretofore. The change, heretofore stated, was made last year, by an act of Congress, passed 26th August, 1842. The annual report for the year commencing July 1st, 1843, and ending June 30th, 1844, should be ready to lay before Congress at the commencement of its next session, in December, 1844; and, instead of its occupying six or eight months in the printing, we see no reason why it should not be ready for delivery in thirty or sixty days after the meeting of Congress. The summary statements, all that is really important, and which would not occupy more than forty or fifty octavo pages, should at least appear in a week or ten days after it has been presented to Congress.

We now proceed to lay before our readers, in a compressed form, the accounts relating to trade and navigation, customs duties, &c., embraced in the British report. Hereafter, through the courtesy of several distinguished correspondents in England, we trust we shall be *able to furnish our readers* the official statements of British trade and navigation in a *few weeks after they are laid* before Parliament, and printed.

Imports into the United Kingdom.

An Account of the Imports of the Principal Articles of Foreign and Colonial Merchandise, and of the Customs Duties received thereon, in the year ended 5th of January, 1844, compared with the Imports and Receipts of the preceding year.

	1843.	1844.	1843.	1844.
Animals, living, viz:—				
Oxen and bulls,.....No.	3,156	1,114	£3,327	£1,167
Cows,.....	1,033	367	813	275
Calves,.....	70	40	38	18
Sheep,.....	634	210	99	23
Lambs,.....	10	7	1	.....
Swine and hogs,.....	410	359	98	69
Bacon,.....cwts.	520	710	165	191
Barilla and alkali,.....tons	2,165	2,860	1,440	892
Bark, for tanners' & dyers' use,..cwts.	645,747	838,887	13,426	11,255
Beef, salted, not corned—				
Of British possessions,.....cwts.	6,219	15,509	263	237
Foreign,.....	23,702	45,382	2,806	447
Beef, fresh, or slightly salted,.....	102	60	39	14
Butter,.....	175,197	152,260	188,025	151,908
Cheese,.....	179,748	179,568	99,444	91,656
Cocoa,.....lbs.	3,172,351	3,613,952	13,863	11,137
Coffee—				
Of British possessions,.....lbs.	20,481,655	18,238,560	£355,337	£353,170
Foreign,.....	20,962,759	20,666,886	414,248	344,818
Total, of coffee,.....	41,444,414	38,905,446	£769,585	£697,988
Corn—				
Wheat,.....qrs.	2,717,454	940,666	£1,112,510	£604,742
Barley,.....	78,335	179,484	22,298	76,695
Oats,.....	301,272	85,010	85,082	12,958
Rye,.....	14,508	4,872	7,687	898
Peas,.....	92,938	48,634	27,229	17,139
Beans,.....	126,443	47,999	19,042	23,833
Maize, or Indian corn,.....	35,806	518	8,476	3,933
Buckwheat,.....	9	2	2	1
Malt,.....	.....	115	.....	.....
Beer, or bigg,.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Wheat-meal, or flour,.....cwts.	1,129,852	489,832	93,287	23,571
Barley-meal,.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Oat-meal,.....	19,069	5,811	1,254	362
Rye-meal,.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Indian-meal,.....	1,934	1	1	.....
Dyes and dyeing stuffs, viz:—				
Cochineal,.....cwts.	11,776	10,359	284	389
Indigo,.....	83,823	68,415	15,871	1,668
Lac dye,.....	6,534	10,689	879	364
Logwood,.....tons	18,481	20,892	2,642	2,146
Madder,.....cwts.	86,382	139,143	5,217	3,936
Madder root,.....	82,879	102,216	1,858	1,343
Shumac,.....tons	9,122	12,917	490	671
Eggs,.....No.	89,548,747	70,448,250	32,652	25,684
Fish, of foreign taking—				
Eels,.....ships lading	72	81	985	1,106
" .....cwts.	.....	1		
Turbots,.....	64	86	17	23
Oysters,.....bush.	.....	1	.....	.....
Salmon,.....cwts.	80	955	13	445
Soles,.....	.....	15	.....	4
Turtle,.....	157	327	42	86
Fresh, not otherwise described,....	126	766	7	41
Cured, do.,.....	36	543	1	54

IMPORTS OF FOREIGN AND COLONIAL MERCHANDISE INTO UNITED KINGDOM, etc.—Continued.

Articles.	1843.	1844.	1843.	1844.
Flax and tow, or codilla of hemp and flax,.....cwts.	1,145,759	1,442,467	£5,053	£6,318
Fruits, viz:—				
Currants,.....cwts.	267,086	238,414	228,705	296,461
Figs,.....	29,854	34,033	18,073	25,556
Lemons & oranges, chests or bxs.	377,380	337,986	71,596	60,570
Lemons & oranges, .No. (loose)	27,884	35,904		
Lemons & oranges, ...at value	£2,045	£1,295		
Raisins,.....cwts.	212,218	216,526	147,014	186,990
Gloves, leather,.....pairs	1,623,713	1,682,182	27,465	28,567
Hams,.....cwts.	7,835	6,991	3,859	2,592
Hemp, undressed,.....	585,905	732,077	2,687	3,057
Hides, untanned,.....	610,428	587,130	26,489	7,695
Mahogany,.....tons	16,938	20,407	14,136	10,368
Meat, salted or fresh, not otherwise described,..... cwts.	36	191	5	9
Molasses,.....	486,463	616,656	255,513	214,750
Metals, viz:—				
Copper ore,.....tons	49,856	55,598	15,689	64,343
Copper, unwrought,.....cwts.	6,180	2,550	4	5
Iron, in bars, unwrought,.....tons	18,701	12,809	17,233	12,687
Steel, unwrought,.....cwts.	13,080	31,951	25	57
Lead, pig and sheet,.....tons	2,461	2,774	60	113
Spelter,.....	6,072	10,173	2,067	223
Tin in blocks, ingots, etc.....cwts.	11,112	31,230	146	644
Oil, viz:—				
Train, blubber, and sperm,....tuns	17,473	23,859	11,057	33,752
Palm,.....cwts.	424,242	420,277	13,641	10,056
Cocoa-nut,.....	49,742	68,577	1,226	1,209
Olive,.....tuns	14,095	12,139	28,347	21,793
Opium,.....lbs.	72,373	244,215	2,513	1,730
Pork, salted—				
Of British possessions,.....cwts.	15,242	11,663	879	439
Foreign,.....	38,921	15,304	4,157	832
Pork, fresh,.....	1¼	.....	1	.....
Quicksilver,.....lbs.	2,006,911	2,090,507	1,134	1,108
Rice,.....cwts.	511,414	453,379	10,305	8,036
Rice in the husk,.....qrs.	41,420	19,877	391	6,825
Saltpetre and cubic nitre,.....cwts.	417,722	624,006	9,084	10,125
Seeds, viz:—				
Clover,.....cwts.	109,090	76,253	163,839	37,047
Flaxseed and linseed,.....qrs.	367,700	469,642	5,217	2,072
Rape,.....	65,686	88,091	941	381
Silk, viz:—				
Raw,.....lbs.	3,951,773	3,464,873	17,226	15,967
Waste, knubs and husks,.....cwts.	12,824	13,312	673	701
Thrown, of all sorts,.....lbs.	397,407	384,805	40,080	17,941
Silk manufactures of Europe, viz:—				
Silk or satin, plain,.....lbs.	140,716	153,831	69,677	83,046
" figured or brocaded,.....	94,256	97,838	70,297	73,951
Gauze, plain,.....	2,230	4,433	1,741	2,442
" striped, fig'd, or brocaded,..	4,665	9,103	6,413	9,373
" tissue Foulards,.....	397	632	360	610
Crape, plain,.....	2,829	2,923	1,908	2,174
" figured,.....	130	286	34	73
Velvet, plain,.....	15,637	16,084	16,374	15,450
" figured,.....	2,988	2,615	4,028	3,679
Other sorts,.....	.....	.....	41,213	43,144
Silk manufactures of India, viz:—				
Bandannas, *and other silk handkerchiefs*,.....pieces	345,776	440,301	2,660	4,038
Other sorts,.....	.....	.....	2,494	3,298

IMPORTS OF FOREIGN AND COLONIAL MERCHANDISE INTO UNITED KINGDOM, etc.—Continued.

Articles.	1843.	1844.	1843.	1844.
Skins, viz:—				
Goat, undressed,.....No.	455,521	515,115	£559	£351
Kid, "	81,510	91,595	13	12
Kid, dressed,.....	480,343	446,772	1,906	1,200
Lamb, undressed,.....	822,042	1,292,310	150	234
" tanned, tawed, or dressed,.	7,728	10,391	27	35
Spices, viz:—				
Cassia Lignea,.....lbs.	1,312,804	2,363,643	1,701	1,745
Cinnamon,.....	223,166	406,387	327	264
Cloves,.....	32,421	120,874	2,380	2,628
Mace,.....	13,770	28,112	2,496	2,674
Nutmegs,.....	169,241	208,461	22,019	20,562
Pepper,.....	6,021,290	4,082,955	70,376	73,252
Pimento,.....cwts.	16,250	18,920	1,847	942
Spirits, viz:—				
Rum,.....galls. (incl. over proof,)	4,619,804	3,729,673	979,237	982,034
Brandy,..... "	1,674,436	2,396,340	1,236,065	1,186,102
Geneva,..... "	323,744	360,220	16,632	15,836
Sugar, unrefined, viz:—				
Of the British possessions in America,.....cwts.	2,508,910	2,503,577	2,822,060	3,191,731
Of Mauritius,.....	689,335	477,124	882,562	573,948
E. I. of British possessions,.....	940,452	1,101,751	1,179,863	1,331,246
Foreign, of all sorts,.....	617,314	939,896	347	252
Total of sugar,.....	4,756,011	5,022,348	4,884,832	5,097,177
Tallow,.....cwts.	1,011,370	1,169,864	171,105	194,981
Tar,.....lasts	10,618	13,973	1,979	1,747
Tea,.....lbs.	40,742,128	45,344,449	4,089,531	4,408,024
Timber and wood, viz:—				
Battens and batten ends, foreign, entered by tale,.....C.	6,677	68	107,606	2,823
Battens and batten ends, of British America, by tale,.....C.	2,156	.....	2,242	.....
Boards, deals, deal ends, and plank, foreign, ent'd by tale,.C.	15,157	250	352,270	6,071
Deals and deal ends of Br. America, by tale,.....C.	21,044	.....	23,896	.....
Deals, battens, boards, or other timber, or wood sawn or split:—				
Of Br. possessions,.....loads	110,319	341,873	17,947	36,453
Foreign,.....	48,715	268,618	111,394	421,873
Staves,..... { loads / ...C.	17,147 / 35,804	56,583 /	27,597	24,023
Timber or wood, not being articles sawn or split, or otherwise dressed, except hewn, and not otherwise charged with duty:—				
Of Br. possessions,.....loads	377,994	583,448	31,166	31,906
Foreign,.....	102,117	126,252	260,961	179,919
Tobacco—				
Unmanufactured,.....lbs.	39,526,968	43,744,893	3,488,967	3,605,107
Manufactured, and snuff,.....	811,064	1,137,531	106,470	124,607
Turpentine, common,.....cwts.	408,474	473,447	19,826	2,085
Wine, viz:—				
Cape,.....gallons	303,223	116,580	53,621	48,054
French,.....	508,942	480,406	110,099	99,227
Other sorts,.....	6,403,948	6,176,809	1,245,426	1,618,135
Total of wine,.....	7,216,113	6,773,795	1,409,146	1,366,116

IMPORTS OF FOREIGN AND COLONIAL MERCHANDISE INTO UNITED KINGDOM, etc.—Continued.

Articles.	1843.	1844.	1843.	1844.
Wool, cotton, viz:—				
Of Br. possessions,.....cwts.	834,381	591,581	£10,949	£7,374
Foreign,.....	3,913,388	5,428,035	557,507	736,528
Total of cotton wool,.....	4,747,769	6,019,616	568,456	743,902
Wool, sheep and lamb's,.....lbs.	45,881,639	49,324,924	95,213	98,797
Other articles,.....	.....	.....	555,434	502,025
Total,.....	.....	.....	£22,596,263	£22,636,659

EXPORTS OF FOREIGN AND COLONIAL MERCHANDISE FROM THE UNITED KINGDOM.

An Account of the Exports of the Principal Articles of Foreign and Colonial Merchandise, in the year ended 5th January, 1844, compared with the Exports of the preceding year, ended 5th of January, 1843 and 1844.

Articles.	1843.	1844.	Articles.	1843.	1844.
Cocoa,.....lbs.	635,125	568,470	Spices, viz:—		
Coffee, viz:—			Cinnamon, ...lbs.	368,554	422,505
Prod. Br. poss.,.lbs.	62,857	125,824	Cloves,.....	54,556	26,504
Foreign,.....	9,442,777	12,557,619	Mace,.....	2,688	9,701
Corn, viz:—			Nutmegs,.....	85,174	36,365
Wheat,.....qrs.	45,930	48,040	Pepper,.....	5,573,820	2,651,650
Barley,.....	13,755	4,445	Pimento,.....cwts.	12,701	21,200
Oats,.....	54,955	41,998	Spirits, viz:—		
Wheat meal and flour,.....cwts.	66,094	45,288	Rum,.....galls.	723,423	1,079,250
Dyes and dyeing stuffs, viz:—			Brandy,.....	702,638	767,460
Cochineal,....cwts.	5,390	5,626	Geneva,.....	316,180	317,706
Indigo,.....	45,795	36,960	Sugar, unrefined, viz:—		
Lac dye,.....	2,597	3,279	Of the Br. possess. in Amer.,..cwts.	4,531	4,937
Logwood, ...tons	3,834	2,649	Of Mauritius,.....	1,525	197
Metals, viz:—			E. I., of B. poss.,...	4,515	4,922
Steel, unw't,.cwts.	19,162	29,137	For'gn, all sorts,...	391,315	563,587
Copper, unw'ght,..	6,824	1,759	Tobacco—		
Iron, in bars or unwrought,...tons	2,159	3,986	Unmanuf'd,....lbs.	12,320,272	8,702,769
Lead, pig,.....	1,636	2,440	Foreign manuf'd, and snuff,...lbs.	611,954	764,270
Spelter,.....	1,910	6,445	Wine, viz:—		
Tin,.....cwts.	12,412	13,007	Cape,.....galls.	3,387	1,624
Oil, olive,.....tuns	696	399	French,.....	147,439	143,554
Opium,.....lbs.	126,515	320,947	Other sorts,.....	1,360,606	1,207,979
Quicksilver,.....	1,457,443	1,286,922	Wool, cotton, viz:—		
Rice, (not in the husk,).....cwts.	311,180	207,329	Of Br. poss.,.cwts.	196,591	160,510
Spices, viz:—			Of other parts,.....	207,438	193,240
Cassia Lignea,.lbs.	1,247,496	1,986,413	Wool, sheep and lamb's,.....lbs.	3,637,789	2,961,282

EXPORTS OF BRITISH PRODUCE AND MANUFACTURES FROM THE UNITED KINGDOM.

An Account of the Exports of the Principal Articles of British and Irish Produce and Manufactures, in the year ended 5th January, 1844, compared with the Exports of the preceding year, (year ending 5th of January, 1843 and 1844.)

Articles.	1843.	1844.
Coals and culm,.....	£734,000	£685,331
Cotton manufactures,.....	13,907,884	16,248,759
" yarn,.....	7,771,464	7,191,870
Earthenware,.....	555,430	629,585
Glass,.....	310,152	336,910
Hardwares and cutlery,.....	1,398,487	1,744,037
Linen manufactures,.....	2,346,749	2,816,111
" yarn,.....	1,095,551	878,164
Metals, viz:—Iron and steel,.....	2,457,717	2,574,494

EXPORTS OF BRITISH PRODUCE, ETC., FROM THE UNITED KINGDOM—Continued.

Articles.	1843.	1844.
Metals, viz:—Copper and brass,	£1,810,742	£1,652,991
" Lead,	354,590	258,660
" Tin, in bars, &c.,	200,956	109,943
" Tin plates,	347,781	480,407
Salt,	201,311	208,207
Silk manufactures,	590,189	664,661
Sugar, refined,	440,175	415,812
Wool, sheep or lamb's,	509,822	417,835
Woollen yarn,	637,305	697,354
Woollen manufactures,	5,185,045	6,784,432
Total of the foregoing articles,	£40,785,350	£44,720,563

VESSELS EMPLOYED IN THE FOREIGN TRADE OF THE UNITED KINGDOM.

An Account of the Number and Tonnage of Vessels, distinguishing the Countries to which they belonged, which entered inwards and cleared outwards, in the year ended 5th January, 1844, compared with the Entries and Clearances of the preceding year; stated exclusively of vessels in ballast, and of those employed in the Coasting Trade between Great Britain and Ireland, (year ending 5th January, 1843 and 1844.)

ENTERED INWARDS.

Countries.	1843. Ships.	1843. Tonnage.	1844. Ships.	1844. Tonnage.
U. Kingdom and its dependencies,	13,823	2,680,838	13,964	2,919,528
Russia,	220	65,249	160	45,506
Sweden,	207	32,222	190	32,476
Norway,	679	107,429	698	111,402
Denmark,	756	54,066	938	65,254
Prussia,	711	138,431	809	157,935
Other German States,	863	74,338	657	60,736
Holland,	481	40,509	432	38,456
Belgium,	256	35,819	236	33,487
France,	801	39,256	590	29,791
Spain,	78	10,955	64	9,179
Portugal,	31	3,544	32	3,982
Italian States,	182	43,732	40	11,176
Other European States,	6	1,727	4	926
United States of America,	574	325,814	748	405,278
Oth. States in Amer., Africa, or Asia,	6	1,301	2	310
Total,	19,674	3,655,230	19,564	3,925,422

CLEARED OUTWARDS.

Countries.	1843. Ships.	1843. Tonnage.	1844. Ships.	1844. Tonnage.
U. Kingdom and its dependencies,	15,197	2,734,983	15,206	2,727,306
Russia,	127	38,269	138	39,281
Sweden,	198	27,054	206	30,855
Norway,	264	30,929	342	38,810
Denmark,	1,092	87,457	1,431	107,609
Prussia,	605	108,917	835	154,457
Other German States,	967	91,752	1,127	100,468
Holland,	512	49,475	575	56,673
Belgium,	354	53,118	297	44,966
France,	1,250	93,533	1,053	87,845
Spain,	66	9,089	63	8,479
Portugal,	27	3,217	34	3,842
Italian States,	159	38,016	58	14,679
Other European States,	3	944	8	1,829
United States of America,	576	323,329	605	335,696
Oth. States in Amer., Africa, or Asia,	5	1,492	2	574
Total,	21,402	3,691,574	21,980	3,753,368

VESSELS EMPLOYED IN THE COASTING TRADE OF THE UNITED KINGDOM.

An Account of the Number and Tonnage of Vessels which entered inwards and cleared outwards with cargoes, at the several ports of the United Kingdom, during the year ended 5th of January, 1844, compared with the Entries and Clearances of the preceding year; distinguishing the Vessels employed in the intercourse between Great Britain and Ireland from other Coasters, (year ending 5th January, 1843 and 1844.)

ENTERED INWARDS.

	1843.		1844.	
	Ships.	Tonnage.	Ships.	Tonnage.
Employed in the intercourse between Great Britain and Ireland,.....	9,060	1,148,907	10,104	1,255,901
Other coasting vessels,.....	118,780	9,636,543	121,357	9,566,275
Total,.....	127,840	10,785,450	131,461	10,822,176

CLEARED OUTWARDS.

	1843.		1844.	
	Ships.	Tonnage.	Ships.	Tonnage.
Employed in the intercourse between Great Britain and Ireland,.....	17,453	1,682,828	16,760	1,670,574
Other coasting vessels,.....	123,557	9,619,829	124,937	9,650,564
Total,.....	141,010	11,302,657	141,697	11,321,138

PRODUCE OF CUSTOMS DUTIES IN THE UNITED KINGDOM.

An Account of the Gross and Nett Produce of the Duties of Customs, in the year ended 5th January, 1844, compared with the Produce of the preceding year, (year ending 5th January, 1843 and 1844.)

	1843.	1844.
Gross receipts of duties inwards,.....	£22,596,263	£22,636,659
" duties outwards,.....	114,424	137,081
Total gross receipts of customs duties,.....	£22,710,687	£22,773,740
Payments out of gross receipts:—		
For bounties,.....	£480	£208
" drawbacks,.....	176,366	134,138
" all'nces on q'ntities over-ent'd, damages, &c.,	68,002	65,291
Total payments out of gross receipt,.....	£244,848	£199,637
Nett receipt of customs duties,.....	£22,465,839	£22,574,103

IMPORTATION OF FLOUR AND GRAIN INTO GREAT BRITAIN.

The Brighton (Eng.) Gazette gives the following statement of the amount of wheat and other grain exported into Great Britain in the last twelve years, and entered for home consumption, with the average price and amount of value, compiled from the annual accounts laid before Parliament by the Board of Trade and Navigation; the estimate of price being averaged from parliamentary documents or from the London Gazette, with the exception of some which are taken from the London Price Current:—

	Quantity. Quarters.	Average Price. s.	d.	Value.
Wheat,.....	14,739,503	57	1	£42,431,115
Barley,.....	2,097,925	33	1	3,260,523
Oats,.....	2,422,845	21	1	2,587,088
Rye,.....	237,482	33	9	400,666
Peas,.....	935,268	35	8	1,667,894
Beans,.....	988,234	35	3	1,741,762
Buckwheat, &c.,.....	82,500	33	1	136,146
Flour, charge for grinding, estimated.....				382,618
Oatmeal,.....				2,721
Total grain,.....				£59,610,535

RAILROAD STATISTICS.

RAILWAYS IN FRANCE.

Until the commencement of the present session, France had only a few completed railways. These were the Rouen, the Orleans, and the Alsace lines; the lines from Lyons to St. Etienne, from Alais to Beaucaire, and from Andrezieux to Roanne, and some small lines, such as those from Montpelier to Cette, from St. Etienne to the Loire, from Paris to Versailles and to St. Germains, from Mulhouse to Thann, &c. Besides these, the following lines were in course of construction:—From Rouen to Havre, from Orleans to Tours, from Avignon to Marseilles, from Paris to Lille and Valenciennes, from Dijon to Chalons, from Strasburg to Hommarting, from Orleans to Vierzon, and from Montpelier to Nismes, being in all 900 kilometres.* The total extent of railways terminated, and in course of construction at that time, was about 2,000 kilometres. To this number, the acts passed during the present session add 147 kilometres from Lille to Calais and Dunkirk, 124 from Amiens to Boulogne, (for which, without doubt, a company will offer on the terms proposed by the Chamber,) 437 from Paris to Hommarting, besides 87 for the branches to Metz and Rheims; 450 kilometres from Paris to Dijon, and from Chalons to Lyons, with 102 kilometres from Montereau to Troyes; 358 kilometres from Tours to Bordeaux; 192 from Tours to Nantes; 60 from Vierzen to Chateauroux; 87 from Vierzen to the Allier; and 74 from Versailles to Chartres. This makes a total of 2,118 kilometres, to which is to be added the trunk railways upon which the works have been going on since the beginning of last January, at the expense of the state, or with its concurrence, in conformity with the law of 1842, which raises the whole extent to 2,828 kilometres; and, with the Rouen and Havre line, to 2,918 kilometres. Next year, it is certain that to this extent will be added the line from the Mediterranean to the Rhine, (205 kilometres,) and that from Lyons to Avignon, (249 kilometres,) being together 454 kilometres. The rest of the lines comprised in the act of 1842 will be afterwards proceeded with; namely, from Nevers to Clermont, from Chateauroux to Limoges, from Chartres to Rennes, from the Atlantic to the Mediterranean, and from Bordeaux to Bayonne; being, in all, 1,320 kilometres. The works are either about to commence, or have already commenced, on 2,821 kilometres; which, at an average expense of 300,000 francs per kilometre, will amount to an outlay of 859,000,000 francs, of which about 500,000,000 are at the expense of the state. With the probable votes of next year, the general expense of the railroads will be 1,540,000,000 francs, (61,600,000*l.* sterling; and in seven years the whole system will be completed.

The Courrier Francais, of a late date, publishes the following return of the amount of capital, in railroad shares, to be issued by the companies of the different lines, of which the construction will be authorized by the French Chambers, during the present session:—

	Francs.	Dollars.
The Paris and Belgian Railroad, not including the branch road between Amiens and Boulogne,.....	75,000,000	14,062,500
Paris and Strasburg,.....	70,000,000	13,125,000
Paris and Lyons,.....	100,000,000	18,750,000
Lyons and Avignon,.....	60,000,000	11,250,000
Orleans and Vierzon,.....	40,000,000	7,500,000
Orleans and Bordeaux,.....	70,000,000	13,125,000
Tours and Nantes,.....	30,000,000	5,625,000
Versailles to Chartres,.....	10,000,000	1,875,000
Total,.....	455,000,000	85,312,500

*A kilometre is about 1,094 yards—an English mile is 1,760 yards.

The execution of these contracts with the companies will, moreover, require on the part of the state an outlay of about 800,000,000 francs, equal to $150,000,000; or, adding the two sums together, we have 1,255,000,000 of francs; or, in our currency, $235,312,500.

BRITISH RAILWAY STATISTICS.

At a recent meeting of the London Statistical Society, Mr. Porter, the Treasurer of the society, read "an examination of the returns made by the various railway companies of the United Kingdom, with respect to their traffic, during the year ending 30th June, 1842." From Mr. Porter's paper, which is of high statistical value, we gather the following particulars:—

The returns for 1843, of 53 lines of railway, of which 41 are in England and Wales, 10 in Scotland, and 2 in Ireland, demonstrate that there were conveyed of passengers of the first class, 4,223,249; of the second class, 10,968,061; of the third class, 6,429,225; and that, with reference to the divisions of the kingdom, the proportions were, for England and Wales, of passengers of the first class, 3,882,171; of the second class, 8,951,070; of the third class, 4,060,321. For Scotland, of the first class, 245,757; of the second class, 877,055; of the third class, 1,529,717. For Ireland, of the first class, 95,321; of the second class, 1,139,936; of the third class, 839,187. The money received from the whole, was 3,063,032*l.*; and the average charge to each passenger in England and Wales, of the first class, was 82d.; of the second class, 31¼d.; of the third class, 19½d. In Scotland, of the first class, 40½d.; of the second class, 16½d.; of the third class, 9½d. In Ireland, of the first class, 10½d.; of the second class, 7d.; of the third class, 5½d. The great difference that exists between the average fares paid in England, Scotland, and Ireland, is occasioned by the greater length of the English lines of railway beyond those of Scotland and Ireland, and the greater length of the Scottish lines beyond those of Ireland. In the short period between 1838 and 1841, Mr. Porter states the amount of railway travelling throughout the kingdom to have been quadrupled. The amount of receipts from 63 railroads, for 1843, for the conveyance of carriages, horses, cattle, minerals, and general merchandise, was, in England and Wales, 1,303,291*l.*; in Scotland, 104,839*l.*; in Ireland, 6,802*l.* The average cost per mile of the various railways in England, has been 31,522*l.*; in Scotland, 22,165*l.*; and in Ireland, 22,187*l.* Mr. Porter concluded his paper by drawing a comparison of the working of English railways with those of Belgium, the only country in Europe, besides England, in which such works have hitherto been carried on as a system, and where the results have been published. At the end of 1842, there were in operation in that kingdom 282 miles of railway, the average cost of constructing which was 17,120*l.* per mile, about half the cost in the United Kingdom. This difference results from a variety of causes. In the first place, the works being undertaken by the government, there were no expensive parliamentary contests; no opposing interests to be bought off; no unreasonable compensations to be paid for land; and, from the nature of the country, there were comparatively few engineering difficulties to be overcome. Besides these circumstances, there has been much present saving effected in the manner of executing the works, which have been performed in a less perfect manner than would satisfy the magnificent ideas of an English engineer. The number of passengers conveyed along the various lines in Belgium, in 1842, was 2,724,104, there being in Belgium of the first class, 9 per cent; of the second class, 25 per cent; of the third class, 66 per cent; whereas, in the United Kingdom, the per centage was, for the first class, 19; the second class, 51; the third class, 30. The receipts for passengers were, in Belgium, 1s. 4½d. for a distance of 19 miles, against 2s. 2½d. in the United Kingdom, for a distance of 13¼ *miles.*

NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

LOSS OF VESSELS ON THE BAHAMA BANKS.

COLLECTOR'S OFFICE, Port of Perth Amboy.

To the Editor of the Merchants' Magazine:—

The recent losses of vessels and lives, on and near the Bahama banks, have awakened much sympathy in every breast, and produced as much wonder at the apathy of the commercial world in regard to these events. It is well known that nearly all vessels bound for ports in the West Indies and the Gulf of Mexico, avoid as much as possible the gulf stream, between the latitudes of 25 and 35 deg. N., and that those bound westward of 80 deg. W. longitude, make the "Hole in the Wall," on Abaco, and then have, in thick and stormy weather, a ticklish and anxious navigation, until they get off the Bahama bank, and ascertain their relative situation, when steering westward through the gulf stream, coursing between Cuba and the Florida Keys. The dangers commence after leaving the light at the "Hole in the Wall." The currents between the south end of Abaco and the Berry islands, are strong and diverse. On the Berry islands, which have so often proved the fatal end of many a voyage, there is no light. From them, when seen, the navigator takes his departure for his course over the Bahama bank. If wind and weather favors, all is well—for the lead, that faithful friend to the sailor, can easily guide the course; but the danger, and a great one it is, is in missing the course, and touching on the Orange Keys. My recommendation to merchants would be, induce the government to unite with England, and other governments most concerned in the navigation of those seas, to place a good light on the northern Berry island. Put a light-ship, well furnished with fog-bell, and other usual appurtenances, midway the channel from the Berry isles to the Orange Keys, in three fathoms water, in about lat. 25 deg. 20 min., and then a beacon, with light, on the Orange Keys. With such a range of lights and precautions, the navigator could cheerfully run his vessel, and merchants and insurers have better hope of safety. I have often wondered, when anxiously going over the track above alluded to, how it could be that the merchants of our country could be so easily induced to trust their vessels, and the lives of their friends, over a navigation so beset with dangers, and yet make no effort to point out to the notice of the government the necessity of some appropriation to meet the case. Vessels and property, it is true, may be insured, and the loss made up; but no insurance can recover back life, experience, and energy; and to this positive loss, insurers should direct their thoughts. A government loses much, indeed, when, by shipwreck, the veteran seaman—the enterprising youth—the man of business, and the fond family, are hurried together to eternity. The late gales in the West Indies have done vast damage; but the damage sustained by loss of life in navigating a critical, yet neglected course, is a reproach on owners, insurers, and government. Awaken the attention of our mercantile community to this subject; and, ere Congress shall convene, something may be done to forward public energy on this important matter. Our growing southern trade demands prompt attention.

Yours, in the cause of humanity. "AN OLD SALT."

SUNKEN ROCK NEAR THE ISLAND OF ROCKAL.

Mr. Bartlett, of the b. , Guide, of Hull, arrived in the river, from Montreal, reports that off the small island of Rockal, lat. 57. 39. N., long. 13. 31. W., there is a clump of hidden rocks, about 80 or 90 feet in length, and 30 feet in breadth; the main rock, on Rockal, bearing from the outer one W. by N. by compass, distance 8 miles. "On the 15th April, 1844, at 4 A. M., sighted Rockal, bearing N. W., ship lying N. W. by W., strong gales from the S. W. by W., clear weather. Was desirous to keep my reach to the N. W. Not being able to weather Rockal, bore away to round the north end—had my mate aloft, and myself on deck, to look for breakers. Suddenly I found the vessel between the outer rock and the main one, at least eight miles distant. With difficulty I cleared, by hauling the ship suddenly on the starboard tack, being not more than one sea from the broken water—breaks occasionally. They are bad to discern aloft, but their locality may be seen much more readily off deck, by the color of the water. The morning being clear, was able to obtain the bearing and distance pretty correctly."

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

MEXICAN LAW RELATIVE TO FOREIGNERS.

THE following circular regulations, relative to the entrance of foreigners into Mexico, by the northern frontier, emanating from the office of Foreign Relations of Government and Police, are republished in this Magazine for the benefit of the citizens of the United States, and all whom it may concern. It is signed by John Granja, the Mexican Consul-General to the United States:—

CIRCULAR.

His Excellency, the Constitutional President, taking into consideration that the law of May 1, 1828, and the ordinances subsequently issued, relative to the admission of foreigners by the northern frontier into the republic, have not answered the ends for which they were dictated:

That through the said frontiers a considerable number of foreigners have fraudulently introduced themselves into the country, without being provided with the requisite passports, and without complying with the formalities of the laws relating to their immigration:

That the extent to which this immigration has been carried, imperiously requires that strict measures be taken to supply the defect existing in the said regulation, and to prevent the evils caused by this abuse, has decided, in cabinet council, and by advice of the council of government, that the following rules shall be observed:—

1. In order that a foreigner may be permitted to enter the territory of the republic by the northern frontier, he must observe the following regulations:—1st. He must enter by either of the places designated for land commerce with the United States. 2d. He must present his passport to the collector of the custom-house of the place where he shall enter. That document, in case it shall have been received from the government, or any functionary authorized to deliver it to persons arriving in Mexico for the purposes of trade, shall be countersigned by the diplomatic agent or consul of the Mexican republic. The supreme government of Mexico may also give passports at the request of persons interested; in which case, it shall not be necessary to be countersigned by the said Mexican agents. 3d. The said foreigners shall make, before the said collector of the custom-house, a formal avowal of submission to the laws and authorities of the nation, and pledge themselves to say, do, or write nothing contrary to the said avowal, during the time they shall reside in the territory of the nation, agreeably to the rules prescribed by the laws of nations.

2. One passport shall not serve for more than one person, except given to the heads of families, which may comprehend the wife, and children under sixteen years of age.

3. The preceding rules will be enforced against every foreigner entering by the said northern frontiers, either as merchant, servant, or driver, companion, or member of an escort, or in any other capacity, whatever.

4. No passport shall be given except for a place designated for land commerce with the United States, and shall serve only for the place mentioned in said document.

5. The collectors of frontier custom-houses shall state on the passports that the persons interested have made the avowal required by article 1st of these regulations; and, after having received the declaration mentioned in the articles 2d and 3d of the law of May 1, 1828, they shall send the originals to the foreign office, through the governor of the department.

6. Foreigners who shall enter Mexico in violation of any of the formalities or rules hereby established, shall be expelled from the territory of the republic.

7. The law of May 1, 1828, relative to foreigners arriving by the northern frontier, shall remain in force in all respects that are not contrary to the present rules.

8. As the object of all treaties of commerce is to protect lawful trade, foreigners who have already entered the republic by the northern frontier, without having complied with the law of May 1, 1828, may continue to reside in the country—provided, always, that they have not forfeited the confidence of the government by their conduct; provided that they follow avocations of commerce or industry, and that they obey the laws relative to the residence of foreigners; but, if not devoted to such avocations, and by their conduct cause suspicion to rest upon them, they may be expelled within a reasonable time, (never exceeding six months,) by the governors of the departments in which they reside; the governors giving due notice to the supreme national government.

The regulations of the 22d of July last shall continue in force in relation to the introduction of slaves through any place, whatever, in the republic.

CONSULATE OF THE UNITED STATES AT RIO DE JANEIRO.

REGULATIONS AT RIO DE JANEIRO RELATIVE TO POSTAGE ON LETTERS, BOOKS, NEWSPAPERS, ETC.

The following notice, transmitted to the Department of State, at Washington, by Geo. William Gorden, Consul of the United States at Rio de Janeiro, in relation to postage on letters, newspapers, and other mail matter forwarded to Brazil from this country, was received at the Department on the 10th November, 1844, and is officially published for the information of whom it may concern. It is dated Rio de Janeiro, Sept. 23d, 1844:—

Newspapers and other printed matter, forwarded to Brazil, should be enveloped with one end of the packet open, or the corners uncovered. If a packet containing such matter be wholly closed, it is subjected here to the same rate of postage as letters, and estimated by weight, though the same be brought by vessel from over sea, and delivered from the office of deposit. The privilege of opening packets at the post-office, as in the United States, and paying for what they contain, is not permitted; but the full letter rate of postage taxed upon a closely enveloped packet must be paid, or the package is withheld.

Letters should never be closed with newspapers, pamphlets, or other printed matter—when thus closed, the whole packet is subjected to letter rates of postage, without remedy.

Letters or packets forwarded to the care of resident merchants, or the American consul, should bear the whole address on the face of them, without their being re-enveloped, as additional wrappers increase the weight, and consequently the postage.

The postage charged on letters from the United States, delivered at the port of arrival in this empire, is 150 reis, or about 8 cents, for each sheet. On newspapers, properly enveloped, 30 reis each paper.

On books, bound or unbound, one quarter the amount of letter postage, rated by weight. Books should be entered on the manifest of the vessel bringing them, and passed through the custom-house; in which case, the amount of duties charged, if for personal use, is very trifling.

Attention to this notice, by individuals sending mail matter to this country, is important; otherwise parties addressed may be obliged to pay several, perhaps five or ten dollars, for a package of newspapers; or, by refusing to do so, be subjected to the loss of the papers, and the risk of the packet's containing something more valuable.

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

MERCANTILE LIBRARY ASSOCIATION OF BOSTON.

The President of this Institution has favored us with the Twenty-Fourth Annual Report, which furnishes fresh evidence of its substantial and elevated condition. Previous to the appearance of the report of last year, it became obvious that the condition of the institution demanded, at the hands of its members, additional exertions to increase its means, and extend its usefulness. Accordingly, the lecture system was adopted; which has, we are pleased to learn, been carried through, with the most satisfactory results. The amount received from the sale of tickets, the first year of the experiment, was $1,329; and the expenses incurred, $1,003 17—being a profit of $325 83. The lectures commenced with the celebration of the twenty-third anniversary, by an admirable address from Hon. Philip Hone, of New York, and an appropriate poem, by Hon. George Lunt, of Newburyport. A strong array of names completed the course thus commenced, viz: Hon. Levi Woodbury, John Neal, Elihu Burrett, John O. Sargeant, Hon. Josiah Quincy, jr., Wendall Phillips, Ralph Waldo Emerson, William Sturgess, Rev. H. Bellows, Henry Giles, &c., and others no less distinguished in the walks of public usefulness. The directors, in their report, pay a just tribute to William Sturgess, of Boston, through whose influence a donation of one thousand dollars was made to the institution, in sums of $100 each, from the following eminent merchants of Boston, viz: William Sturgess, Nathan Appleton, Abbott Lawrence, William Appleton, John P. Cushang, John Bryant, David Sears, William Lawrence, Robert G. Shaw, and Amos Lawrence. A contribution was also made to the institution of $500, from the Boston Society for the Diffusion of Useful

Knowledge, through their President, Daniel Webster. The library now contains 3,850 volumes. "In the selection of books," says the report, "we have endeavored to consult the interests of every reader, by purchasing works of an entertaining, as well as of an instructive character; and to avoid, as much as possible, those ephemeral popular fictions, which so profusely flood the land; being convinced that their influence upon the mental and moral condition of the young is most pernicious—insomuch as, by familiarizing their minds with imaginary scenes of degraded and brutalized humanity, or a tissue of sickly sentimentality, they produce a species of mental intoxication, having a direct tendency to impair the finer feelings, and render the soul callous to lofty and noble sentiments, and unprepared for the realities and duties of every-day life."

The exercises in declamation, debate, and composition, by members, have been, it appears, conducted in a manner creditable to the institution; and the other exercises connected with commercial education, which are justly regarded of paramount importance, have been well sustained. "Although," says the report, "it is not to be expected that those who aim at mercantile eminence will become profound scholars, yet, by a judicious application of their leisure hours, to the rational culture of those faculties which are possessed in common by every individual, they may become intelligent, and therefore respectable; useful, and therefore honorable; and, with the advantages of a large and well selected library, we know of no way by which young men can better fit themselves to be good citizens, and cherished members of society, than by participating in exercises similar to those of this association."

The whole amount of receipts, during the past year, for assessments and fines, has been twelve hundred and seventy-five dollars; for dividends on stocks, fifty dollars; and the amount expended, eleven hundred dollars—leaving a balance, from the year's receipts, of two hundred and twenty-five dollars; which, in addition to a balance at the commencement of the year, of sixty dollars, now leaves a total balance in the treasury of two hundred and eighty-five dollars, independent of the funds received by donations, which remains in the hands of the "Committee on the Purchase of Books."

The report—a clear, comprehensive, and business-like paper—reflects credit on the President and Board of Directors, and concludes with urging the claims of the association upon the attention of the members:—

"Every member should take a personal interest in the welfare of the institution, and labor as heartily to promote its prosperity, and extend its influence, as if he were an officer. It would require but little effort to double the number of our members, if all of those now enjoying its advantages would put forth their strength in its behalf. We hope to see the time come, when all the mercantile young men of Boston will be banded together under the constitution of our association, intent to promote their mutual interests, ambitious to increase the means and materials of their mutual benefit; meeting as companions and friends in a league of hearts and fellowship of mind; meeting for self-culture, for improvement in all which will advance their worldly interests; for progress in intellectual and moral excellence; for everything that will tend to make them good merchants, and intelligent and conscientious men."

THE QUESTION FOR ACCOUNTANTS.

To the Editor of the Merchants' Magazine:—

Sir—On the solution of "The Question for Accountants," your last number presents a voluminous communication from Mr. W. B. Heriot; the object of which is to disprove the propriety of my "views" on the subject under consideration.

While, with marked deference to the judgment of Mr. H., I decline to adopt a precedent which would dictate the propriety of occupying nearly *three pages* to arrive at an issue which may be adduced in half as many *lines*; namely, whether the wares drawn out of *company should be valued* at *cost*, or *present worth*, this being the only point in *dispute;—while, I repeat,* I decline a course like this, I would fain inquire by what authority, *or for what reason,* does he draw the *same* wares out of company at a less value

than their *cost*, when put into company?—thus exhibiting an *apparent loss* on merchandise *not yet sold!* and which, for all he knows to the contrary, may, by the constant and almost ever-varying fluctuations in trade, either *rise* on the morrow, far above *cost*, or *fall* far below even their *present worth*, and thus place the author of the "*critique*," if manager, under the indispensable necessity of closing his previously opened account of merchandise in books *proper*; and, as a consequence, thus compelling him to re-open it under a different valuation, to accommodate *his* notions of book-keeping.

Again—suppose the wares sold in partnership had produced $120 per piece, would the practice be not equally correct, on Mr. H.'s plan, to charge those drawn out of company, and taken to private account, at their *present value?* This being unavoidably so, an *apparent gain* would be shown on what was *never sold!*—a fact which would be completely reversed by a *fall* in price, previous to a sale; thereby shewing the absolute folly of any other adjustment than that which I have offered, (as all competent accountants know,) and thus properly leaving the ultimate gain or loss on the sales to be determined as circumstances may warrant.

Taking, I hope, a final farewell of this subject, I conclude by informing Mr. H. that his extremely simple question is answered by giving to A $700 of the amount paid by C, and to B the sum of $100.

I am, sir, very respectfully, your obliged servant,

J. W. WRIGHT.

ANSWER TO MR. HERIOT'S QUESTION.

As I understand it, A's interest in the ship is $\frac{5}{8}$, and B's $\frac{3}{8}$, up to the time of their transaction with C;* after which, the three interests are to be equalized. This will be accomplished by the following

JOURNAL ENTRIES.

	Drs.	Crs.
Ship to sundries, for original investment,	$800 00	
to A,		$500 00
to B,		300 00
A to ship,	800 00	
for amount received from C, in payment for $\frac{1}{3}$ share,		800 00
Ship new acc. to ship,	1,600 00	
For this amount transferred, as the value of A and B's present interest,		1,600 00
Ship to sundries,	1,600 00	
For balance of profits on this account—		
To A, his $\frac{5}{8}$,		1,000 00
To B, his $\frac{3}{8}$,		600 00
B to A, amount paid the latter in cash,	100 00	
For balance due, to equalize their present interests, (which answers the question,)		100 00
Ship new acc. to C,	800 00	
For his $\frac{1}{3}$ share,		800 00

When the above entries are posted, the result will be—

Debits, or Assets.		Credits, or Claimants.	
Ship new acc.,	$2,400	A, $\frac{5}{8}$,	$800
		B, $\frac{3}{8}$,	800
		C, $\frac{1}{3}$,	800
	$2,400		$2,400

Perhaps the following may be considered, by some, as a simpler view of the case:—Without any regard to cost, let us begin by supposing A to own $\frac{5}{8}$, and B to own $\frac{3}{8}$ of the ship, which is, in fact, the case; but we need make no account of their respective advances. Then A is entitled to $\frac{5}{8}$, and B $\frac{3}{8}$ of the proceeds, viz: $800. At this period,

* This part of the question is quite ambiguous: but if A and B are to share the profits equally from the first, then A will have to pay B $300, instead of $100.

A will own of the remaining ⅞ of the ship ⅞, and B ⅛. But before we proceed further, it is necessary to know what this ⅞ is worth; for on this the answer to the question depends. They sell ⅛, it is true, for $800; but it does not necessarily follow that they may value the remainder at so high a rate. This question is here important, and should have been stated by Mr. Heriot; for A must now sell B ⅛ of his ⅞, to make them equal. I have valued the ⅞ at $1,600, the ⅛ of which is $200. But Mr. Heriot must see that as this is an actual sale from A to B, any other valuation would make a difference to A and B, which would not, as in ordinary cases, be rectified in the next ship's account. If we now make out A and B's accounts, they will stand thus:—

A

Dr.			Cr.
To cash received for ⅛,.....	$800	By ⅞, proceeds of sale ⅛,.....	$500
		" B, for ⅛ of rem. ⅞,.....	200
		" balance,.....	100
	$800		$800

B

Dr.			Cr.
To A, for ⅛ of rem. ⅞,.....	$200	By ⅞, proceeds of sale ⅞,.....	$300
" balance,.....	100		
	$300		$800

THOMAS JONES.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES IN GREECE.

It is stated by Boeck, in his "Economy of Athens," that commercial occupations were never in great esteem among the ancient Greeks. No person of ancient nobility ever condescended to them, although conversely a manufacturer might raise himself to the head of public affairs, such as Cleon, Hyperbolus, and others. The early statesmen, however, encouraged industry, especially Solon, Themistocles, and Pericles, partly with the intention of improving the condition of the lower classes, and partly of increasing the population of the city; as well as advancing the cause of commerce, and of manning the numerous fleets by which, after the time of Themistocles, the Athenians held the mastery of the sea. And it was this circumstance that rendered the resident aliens indispensable for Athens, who carried on manufactures and commerce to a great extent, and were bound to serve in the fleet. It even appears that the useful arts were encouraged by honorary rewards, though even by these means they could not gain in the public estimation. There were prizes for the common people, for which the higher ranks did not compete with them. At the same time, the respectable citizens, who had none of the higher aristocratical notions, like Pericles, Alcibiades, or Callias, the son of Hipponicus, whose pride yielded in nothing to the haughtiness of the modern nobility, were not ashamed of superintending extensive manufactories, worked at their own expense. The inferior citizens were as much reduced to the necessity of manual labor as the poor aliens and slaves. It was not until after the balance had been turned in favor of the aristocracy, that measures of severity were brought forward; as, for example, Diophantus proposed that all the manual laborers should be made public slaves. There was again another reason why no restriction should have been imposed upon the freedom of industry, viz: the little importance that was attached to it. An alien was allowed to carry on any trade, although he was prohibited from holding any property in land. With regard, indeed, to the sale in the market, strangers were on a less advantageous footing than natives, as they were obliged to pay a duty for permission to expose their goods there. The law of Solon, that men should not deal in ointments, was only founded on principles of education, in order to withdraw men from womanish labors—subsequently, however, it became a dead letter, *for Æschines, the philosopher,* had a manufactory of ointments.

THE BOOK OF THE EXPLORING EXPEDITION.

We are gratified to learn that the very natural curiosity expressed by the public, both at home and abroad, in regard to the "Narrative of the United States Exploring Expedition, during the years 1838, '39, '40, '41, and '42, by Charles Wilkes, U. S. N.," of which but little or nothing has been published, is soon to be gratified. From Lea & Blanchard, the enterprising publishers, of Philadelphia, we learn that considerable progress has been made in that city in printing the work. It will consist, first, of five demi-quarto volumes, of about five hundred pages each, illustrated very superbly, with sixty-eight steel plates—about forty-six steel vignettes worked on the pages of letter-press, and two hundred wood-cuts scattered through the work, with four very large maps, and several smaller ones. This edition is ordered by Congress for distribution to foreign powers and a few libraries—it will be a very small one. A second edition, (if such it may be called, when both are simultaneously printed,) of octavo size, will be published, and will be under the control of Lea & Blanchard, of Philadelphia. The copy-right of this belongs to, and has been secured by, the author. It will contain the same illustrations, the whole of which are in a very forward state. Nearly two volumes of both editions are actually printed, and the whole will probably be ready for publication in three months. More attention has been given to the mere "getting-up" of this work, than to any other published in this country. It is purely, in all its parts, an American production—the illustrations are highly creditable to our artists and draftsmen, and may be classed with the best that have appeared in Europe. A portion of these, we have seen. We shall, after the publication, endeavor to convey to our readers a correct account of the literary execution. Great labor has undoubtedly been bestowed by author, artists, and the scientific gentlemen attached to the expedition, to make this a truly elegant work. It will, undoubtedly, be a work of great interest to merchants, and those engaged in an extended commerce, as well as the general reader.

IRON TRADE ON THE CONTINENT OF EUROPE.

We learn, says the London Railway Chronicle, from an official return, that the iron trade on the continent has been rapidly extending, and that the following is very nearly the relative proportion of the pig and bar iron manufactured in different states:—Prussia, 199 furnaces, worked with charcoal, employ 8,674 workmen, and produce about 120,000 tons of cast iron, equal in value to £730,000. Wrought iron, in bar and plate, is made at 538 forges, employing 6,049 workmen, and producing 73,000 tons, of the value of £230,000. Bavaria, 44 furnaces, producing 9,000 tons of cast iron, and 141 forges, producing 5,750 tons of wrought iron. Wurtemburg, 6,400 tons of cast, and 2,500 tons of wrought iron. Grand Duchy of Baden, 7,000 tons of cast, and 4,750 tons of malleable iron. Saxony, 7,500 tons of cast, and 4,650 tons of wrought iron. Electorate of Hesse, 4,150 tons of cast, and 900 tons of malleable. Grand Duchy of Hesse, 7,150 tons of cast, and 2,400 tons of malleable. Duchy of Nassau, 14,330 tons of cast, and 1,300 tons of bar iron, and 2,375 tons of different other sorts of iron, in bars, cast and wrought iron work. Duchy of Brunswick, 2,150 tons of cast, and 7,180 tons of wrought iron, or works in cast iron. United States of Saxe-Weimar-Eisenach, Saxe-Meinengen, Anhalt, Scharzbourg-Hohenzollern-Siegmaringen, Reuss, Waldeck, produce 4,035 tons of cast, and 2,240 tons of bar iron, or works in cast iron. German Luxembourg, 7,700 tons of cast iron. Total production of the States of the Zoll-verein: Cast iron, 191,156; wrought iron, or works in cast and wrought iron, 107,324 tons. In proportion to the population, these quantities are not great, since it only amounts to about 15½ lbs. for each person throughout the confederation. In France, where this manufacture is even yet but imperfectly developed, it amounts to above 22 lbs. In Belgium, it is about 36 lbs.; while in England it is as high as 55 to 56 lbs. for each person.

LATE HOURS OF BUSINESS.

The following remarks, though intended for England, are not without application to the retail trade of our commercial cities. They are from a little work, recently published in England, entitled "The Evils of the Late Hour System, by Ralph B. Grindrod, LL. D."

"The unreasonable conduct of a numerous class of purchasers makes the employment of assistant drapers, in particular, and of all engaged in the traffic of goods, more wearisome and fatiguing than it would be under more favorable circumstances. Every hour, nay, every minute, requires constant attention to the same monotonous round of minute and uninteresting details. To this, is too frequently superadded those perpetual trials of the patience and temper, which those alone can realize who have been subjected to the unreasonable demands of inconsiderate customers. It matters not how often the drawers and shelves may have been arranged during the night. They must again and again be disarranged to accommodate the whims of customers, who too often, after almost endless trouble, make but slight purchases. The young men of our mercers' shops, however minute the order, are required, under all circumstances, to exhibit the same bland and obsequious attention to those upon whom they wait.

"An assistant draper, of long experience, informs the writer that after customers have, late in the evening, so pulled about various articles of dress, the after arrangement of which would give employment for a considerable portion of time, it is generally the case that they conclude by a remark to the following effect:—'It is impossible to tell what sort of color it may be by daylight; so I will call again in the morning.' This wonderful discovery, unfortunately for the poor assistant, is only made after a tedious trial of the patience and temper, although probably the light of day had given place to that of gas at least an hour previously.

"The modern spirit of competition has induced a numerous class of tradesmen to adopt a plausible but fictitious appearance of traffic—a practice which, we may readily suppose, does not diminish the hard lot of assistants. No leisure moments, consequently, must be devoted to other than the business of the shop—no intervals of rest are permitted in the absence of persons to purchase. An *appearance* of business is enforced; the hurry and bustle of a thriving trade is exhibited; in lack of other duties, articles must be packed and repacked; ribbons again and again rolled—every specious means, in short, is put into operation to impress the public with an opinion of extensive traffic. The already overtasked assistants suffer the penalties of this system of delusion."

MISSOURI IRON MOUNTAINS.

Professor Silliman and Forest Shepherd, of New Haven, recently made a mineralogical exploring tour in Missouri. The first-named gentleman, in his college course of lectures, just closed, stated the following facts in regard to the Missouri iron mountains, as communicated to the New Haven Palladium:—"There are two of these iron mountains, he said, situated not far distant from each other, and forty or fifty miles west of the river Mississippi. One of them, I understood him to say, was about 700, and the other something more than 300 feet in height; that is, above the level of the surrounding plain. The iron with which they abound is a peroxyde, consisting of twenty-eight parts iron, and fourteen parts oxygen—thus constituting a very rich ore of iron. As you approach either of these mountains, and before you get to them, you find lumps and masses of this form of iron, scattered much like the stones of New England. Advancing, you find the masses in larger numbers and greater size; and so on up the mountains, till you approach their summits, where you find one vast capping to the mountain of these iron rocks and stones, whose depth has never been explored! Of course, how far they go down, we do not know, nor what proportion of the substance of these mountains is iron, but we perceive the quantity there to be immense, almost beyond calculation—enough, I understood the professor to say, to supply the whole human race, even under the present vast consumption of iron, with that metal for ages to come. The base and sides of the mountain, Dr. Silliman said, are thickly and beautifully wooded—even after you come to the immense *cappings with which the mountains* are rounded off, you find the trees everywhere shoot *up among those rocks,* although you can discover scarce a trace of soil."

SELF-RELIANCE IMPORTANT TO THE MERCHANT.

Self-reliance, to the merchant, and indeed to all who would succeed in the accomplishment of a laudable purpose or pursuit, is indispensable. It was this trait, perhaps, more than any other, that enabled an Astor, a Girard, a Gray, in our own country, to work out for themselves vast fortunes—to accumulate millions. An eminent writer has somewhere said, if our young men miscarry in their first enterprise, they lose all heart. If the young merchant fails, men say he is ruined. If the finest genius studies in one of our colleges, and is not installed in an office in one year afterwards, in the city or suburbs of Boston or New York, it seems to his friends and to himself that he is right in being disheartened, and in complaining the rest of his life. A sturdy lad from New Hampshire or Vermont, who in turn tries all the professions, who teams it, farms it, peddles, keeps a school, preaches, edits a newspaper, goes to Congress, buys a township, and so forth, in successive years, and always, like a cat, falls on his feet, is worth a hundred of these city dolls. He walks abreast with his days, and feels no shame in not studying a profession, for he does not postpone his life, but lives already. He has not one chance! Let a stoic arise who shall reveal the resources of man, and tell men they are not leaning willows, but can and must detach themselves; that, with the exercise of self-trust, new powers shall appear; that a man is the word made flesh, born to shed healing to the nations; that he should be ashamed of our compassion; and that the moment he acts from himself, tossing the laws, the books' idolatries and customs, out of the window, we pity him no more, but thank him and revere him—and that teacher shall restore the life of man to splendor, and make his name dear to all history. It is easy to see that a greater self-reliance—a new respect for the divinity in man—must work a revolution in all the offices and relations of men: in their religion; in their education; in their pursuits; their modes of living; their association; in their property; in their speculative views.

ADVICE TO TRADERS IN AFRICA.

There is, says an intelligent correspondent of the Nautical Magazine, a Hottentot village about forty miles on an east-by-south course from the head of Spencer's Bay, Africa, containing about two hundred and fifty inhabitants, and situated in a fertile valley, watered by several springs of excellent fresh water. There are also four refreshing springs between the village and the bay. The interior of the country abounds in cattle, sheep, deer, bucks, wolves, gray foxes, elephants, and ostriches, in greater numbers than it does farther south, which may be had for any price you please to give, in the way of barter; for money would be of no more use to them, than an equal weight of sand would be to us. Offer them such articles as their circumstances require, and they will trade in the most liberal and honest manner.

"I am aware that most people have imbibed the mistaken idea that these natives are treacherous and cruel, and blood-thirsty, and everything that is bad. They are not so. I make the assertion on personal experience and practical knowledge. There is no more danger in travelling two or three hundred miles in the interior of this country, for purchasing cargoes, than there is in travelling among our own Indians in the state of New York, provided you take no temptations with you, and no other arms than a musket. Whatever you purchase of the natives is sold in good faith, to be paid for according to contract, on the delivery of the articles at the beach, and not before. Under this arrangement, they could not defraud you, were they so disposed; and, were there no other safeguard for your person, the prospect of this payment would be amply sufficient. But their natural dispositions are friendly and humane; and, if you treat them with kindness, they will repay your favors more than ten to one. When they deliver the cattle and other articles at the beach, give them the articles in return for which they stipulated, and they are satisfied; but I would recommend a little extension of courtesy on these occasions, by presenting their chiefs a few tasteful trifles, which may attract their attention. Whatever you bestow in this way, will not be thrown away, but returned to you seven-fold in some other shape, or on some other occasion."

THE BOOK TRADE.

1.—*The American Almanac, and Repository of Useful Knowledge, for* 1845. Boston: James Munroe & Co.

The sixteenth volume of this standard work has just appeared, and seems fully to sustain the high character acquired by its predecessors. A great amount of information is condensed within a small compass, indispensable for present use, and valuable for preservation, and future references. It is the only work in the country which furnishes complete lists of the names, residences, and salaries of all the officers of the executive and judiciary, not only of the national government, but of all the individual states and territories. Full particulars are also found in it, collected from official sources of the latest date, respecting the finances, common schools, internal improvements, and benevolent institutions of the several states. We notice, also, complete lists of the colleges, medical and theological, and medical schools, and statistics of all the religious denominations. The astronomical computations in the present volume, furnished by one of the most distinguished men of science in the country, (Professor B. Peirce, of Harvard University,) appear of more than usual extent and value; and the collection of meteorological tables is very curious, as showing the climate and weather at all important points in our extensive territory. Each volume of the almanac is a new work, no part being reprinted without extensive alterations and additions, and most of it being altogether original. We find in this number the returns respecting the commerce of the United States, similar to those published in this Magazine, distinguishing its various branches, and showing its comparative state for more than twenty years. There are also full particulars respecting the revenue and expenditure of the general government, ever since it was established. A curious article of criticisms on the late census for 1840, contains some valuable suggestions for the statistical inquirer. Separate chapters are allotted to the judiciary, army, navy, post-office, mint, and public lands; the essence of all the important public documents published at the last session of Congress being given in the most succinct form. Another novel feature of the work, is the abstract of all the public laws passed at the last session of Congress, which is to be continued for future sessions; so that the Almanac will contain a record of the legistation of the country, in a form very concise, and admirably adapted for reference. The full obituary register, containing a brief, but carefully prepared sketch of the lives of distinguished men, who have died during the past year, will be found interesting for immediate perusal, and of much use for preservation, as containing valuable materials for the history of our own times. As a whole, the American Almanac may well be commended, as being what its name imports—a national work; the high character of which, for fulness and accuracy, is now generally acknowledged.

2.—*American Wild Flowers, in their Native Haunts.* By Emma C. Embury. With twenty plates of Plants, carefully colored after nature, and Landscape Views of their localities, from Drawings on the spot. By E. Whitefield. pp. 256. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

The large and highly gilded quarto volume, whose title we have quoted, is another contribution to what may be properly termed the fine arts of literature. It is richly adorned, and its letter-press, paper, and all its embellishments, are elegant. It appears, indeed, as if the gorgeous flowers of our own country had been transplanted from their native fields, with portions of the landscape where they had flourished, to the pages of this book, whose covers are also emblazoned with vases of flowers of gold. The painted designs of the volume are illustrated with descriptive papers and poems, by some of our most popular authors; and it forms, altogether, the most splendid and appropriate gift-book of the season.

3.—*The Rose of Sharon. A Religious Souvenir for MDCCCXLV.* Edited by Miss S. C. Edgarton. Boston: A. Tompkins & B. B. Muzzy.

The frontispiece, "Excelsior," is happily chosen, to indicate the onward and upward aim of the fair editor of this beautiful annual, which has now reached its sixth volume. We have all but one of them, and it affords us pleasure to note the improvements that have characterized each successive issue. That in the engravings is perhaps the most prominent; and we think, too, we discover in the constant contributors a more matured style, and higher aims; the articles, to say the least, exhibit a vein of christian thought and sentiment, more in harmony with the principles of a spiritualized, active, philanthrophy. In "Glimpses of a Better Life," Horace Greely has given utterance to some of the highest and best thoughts of our time; thoughts which seem to occupy the attention of the loftiest intellects christendom over; if we can rely upon the expression they find in periodical literature, the speeches of the statesman, and the efforts of those who would advance man's social destiny on earth. E. H. Chapin, an eloquent divine, and one of the most popular Lyceum lecturers in New England, has contributed an admirable essay on "Unity," a little word, but a subject of deep significance to the christian philosopher. On the whole, we may commend the present volume, as one well calculated to strengthen and encourage every noble and generous impulse of our nature.

4.—*The Novels of Frederika Bremer. The Neighbors—The Home—The President's Daughters—Nina—Sketches of Every-Day Life—The H—— Family, &c., &c.* Translated by Mary Howitt. New York: Harper & Brothers.

We are glad to welcome these works, included in a single volume. Their appearance marks, we may almost say, a new era in English literature. They have at least opened to English and American readers a new literary world—one before almost entirely unknown to the great mass of the people, and scarcely explored even by literary men. They have also done not a little to open new fields for the exercise of the imagination, in investing with the colors of fiction the daily and hourly occurrences of domestic life. But most of all is their influence to be prized for the spirit of love and brotherly sympathy which they display, and for the irresistible charm which they throw around the domestic virtues, and the sweet charities of common life. No series of novels, in the compass of English literature, can be compared with them in this respect. Their influence must always be salutary, and they will never cease to be read so long as delightful narrative, fertile and graceful imagination, and the most delicate taste, render literary productions attractive. They have been published in one large octavo, very handsomely issued, and forming a most desirable work.

5.—*Revolutionary Orders of General Washington, issued during the years* 1778, '80, '81, *and* '82. Selected from the MSS. of John Whiting, Lieutenant and Adjutant of the 2d Regiment Massachusetts Line, and edited by his son, Henry Whiting, Lieutenant-Colonel U. S. Army. 8vo., pp. 255. New York and London: Wiley & Putnam.

The correspondence of such a man as Washington, upon any topic, will attract respect and interest; and especially his orders upon subjects regarding his military career. In the very valuable series of volumes, embracing the correspondence of Washington, which has been compiled by Mr. Sparks, this part has been omitted; and it accordingly forms a proper supplement to those volumes. The various subjects which these orders embrace, are many of them minute; yet they serve to show the principles which guided the public conduct of this upright man, which induced him to be as scrupulous in his regard for the smallest, as the greatest of his concerns. They also exhibit his reliance upon a superintending Providence, and his watchfulness respecting the condition even of the most obscure soldier in the ranks of his army. As indicating the military character of the commander-in-chief upon the field, and the discipline which he preserved, they are a very valuable contribution to the revolutionary history of the country.

6.—*The Child's Picture and Verse-Book, commonly called Otto Speckter's Fable-Book.* Translated from the original German. By MARY HOWITT, author of "Love and Money," "Work and Wages," "Alice Franklin," "Hope On, Hope Ever," "Who Shall be Greatest," etc. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

7.—*My Uncle, the Clock-Maker. A Tale.* By MARY HOWITT.

Mary Howitt has contributed liberally to our stock of juvenile literature, and her books are not only unexceptionable in their tone and tendency, but they are absolutely excellent; and, as moral and social teachers, they deserve a high rank, if not the highest. There is, in her truthful fictions, none of the false sentiment, the erroneous judgments concerning character, principle, and duty; the exaggerated coloring of life and manners, and human prospects, which falsify and debase the common romance; and, we are sorry to add, render worthless and enervating so many of the little works written for the improvement of the young. We love to read well written books for children—there are few of Mary Howitt's works from which we have derived more pleasure than from those intended for the young; and we feel no shame in confessing that we have read several of the works enumerated in the titles above quoted, with interest and pleasure.

8.—*Clever Stories, for Clever Boys and Girls; containing "Think Before You Act;" "Jack, the Sailor Boy;" "Duty is Safety."* By Mrs. SHERWOOD, author of "Henry Milner," "Little Lucy," etc., etc. Philadelphia: George S. Appleton.

"Clever Stories"—a very good title, and followed by very good "words;" the better because designed for children and young persons. If we could ever advocate a censorship of the press, it would be for the purpose of preventing the publication of "grown-up romances in miniature." We rank them with baby balls and boys' parties, in which the evils of mature life and artificial society are made to come down to the innocent and pure, and torment them before their time. If we were compelled to regulate morals and trade by human laws, we would allow no traffic but in "things true, honest, lovely, pure, and of good report." Under such laws, the author of "Clever Stories" would have no cause to fear. There is nothing in her pages but what is true and healthful, tending to impart and sustain a high tone of moral sentiment; to build the character on elevated principle, and to raise up for us sons and daughters who shall adorn and bless society.

9.—*The Prize Story Book; consisting chiefly of Tales translated from the German, French, and Italian; together with Select Tales from the English. Embellished with numerous designs.* Philadelphia: George S. Appleton.

The sources from which this collection of tales has been derived, were ample; and the author or translator has brought together, in an accessible form, a variety of pieces, scattered throughout voluminous works, mixed up with others of less interesting, and even objectional character. There is not, however, in the present volume, anything fairly open to objection on the score of principle, or which may be thought to countenance a questionable morality. Every story in the book does not, perhaps, contain a direct lesson of instruction. It does not profess to be more than a mere *book of recreation;* and, in many cases, of *mirthful* recreation, too. It seems, on the whole, to be the design that, if any moral is deducible, it should not be a bad one.

10.—*The Book of the Indians of North America; illustrating their Manners, Customs, and Present State.* Edited by JOHN FROST, LL. D., author of the "Book of the Army," "Book of the Navy," etc., etc. 12mo., pp. 283. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

The editor of the Book of the Indians has heretofore won deserved credit in preparing two works illustrating the history of two prominent arms of the public defence. In the present volume, he has embodied much interesting matter connected with the character, history, and customs of the Indian tribes. The habits of many of the remote western Indians, who are little known to white men, are here described; and the book is enlivened with numerous engravings, which present the customs of those tribes in a visible form. We are glad to perceive that there is an evident improvement in the style of this *species of our historic literature*, as well as in the form of its publication.

11.—*Richard III., as Duke of Gloucester and King of England.* By CAROLINE A. HALSTEAD, author of the "Life of Margaret Beaufort," and "Obligations of Literature to the Mothers of England." Complete in one volume. 8vo., pp. 472. Philadelphia: Carey & Hart.

The work whose title we have here quoted, is an attempt to rescue the character of the Duke of Gloucester from the aspersions cast upon it by early historical records, as well as by the great dramatist Shakspeare. We have been accustomed to view him as a diminutive hunchback, although an accomplished warrior; possessing mighty energy, and all-absorbing ambition, yet having a soul black and malignant as, according to popular belief, his body was deformed. These traits are denied, in the volume, as belonging to this personage. It is alleged that the imputations of this sort, resting upon his character, are unfounded, being based upon unauthenticated tradition and inaccurate history. We can easily imagine that the unenviable position which he sustained toward the public of his own time, exposed him to many popular rumors, as malicious as they were exaggerated. Historical facts are referred to for the purpose of showing that the nation was indebted to him for many salutary statutes; that he was distinguished for the administration of justice, and for acts of beneficence towards the arts, and seminaries of learning; and that he was innocent of that long catalogue of crimes which, it is to be regretted, disfigured the stormy age in which he lived.

12.—*Anastasis; or, The Doctrine of the Resurrection of the Body Rationally and Scripturally Considered.* By GEORGE BUSH, Professor of Hebrew, New York University. New York: Wiley & Putnam.

This is a remarkable work, and has already created considerable interest among Christian theologians; and will, we predict, increase and extend its interest and influence, as it shall become more widely known in the religious world. The results announced, are of momentous import to the interests of revealed truth. The conclusions to which Professor Bush has arrived, as embodied in the present volume, must, "if built upon sound premises, present the grand future under an entirely new aspect." "The resurrection of the body," he says, "if my reasonings and expositions are well founded, is not a doctrine of revelation." The almost universally admitted idea of human progress, he applies to Scripture; maintaining, with great perspicuity and force, that the knowledge of Revelation, like that of Nature, is destined to be continually on the advance. The elevated character of the author, intellectually and morally, cannot fail of commanding for his investigations a profound respect, and the most marked consideration.

13.—*The Complete Works of Mrs. Hemans. Reprinted entire, from the last London edition.* Edited by her sister. In two volumes. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

The reputation of Mrs. Hemans as a poetess, is too well known to require commendation. The present volumes are given to us in a compressed form. The entire body of her poetic efforts, although they appear in a small but clear type, are more valuable on that account, to those who may wish to carry them on occasional travelling excursions, when a more bulky edition would be inconvenient and cumbrous. The edition is, however, adorned with engravings; and, we doubt not, will amply compensate the publishers in their reprint of it in the present elegant form. It is from the latest London edition, and the most complete and perfect heretofore published.

14.—*The Settlers in Canada. Written for Young People.* By CAPTAIN MARYATT. In 2 volumes, 18mo., pp. 170–179. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

The design of these two little volumes is to depict the circumstances connected with the first settlement of emigrants in Canada. Captain Maryatt uses a ready and graphic pen, and he is doubtless conversant with the scenes he has described. The narrative portion is conveyed in a style easily intelligible by the youthful mind, to which it is especially addressed; and it is also interesting to the mature reader, in so far as it exhibits some of the most prominent events connected with the life of an emigrant, in the yet new territory of Canada.

15.—*The Library of American Biography.* Conducted by JARED SPARKS. Second series. Vol. III. 12mo., pp. 438. Boston: Charles C. Little and James Brown.

The public are much indebted to Mr. Sparks for perpetuating, in permanent forms, the most important portion of the documentary history of the country. The present volume contains the life of John Sullivan, by Oliver W. B. Peabody; of Jacob Leisler, by Charles F. Hoffman; of Nathaniel Bacon, by William Ware; and that of John Mason, by George E. Ellis. These biographical sketches appear to be well compiled—a remarkable degree of industry is exhibited in consulting ancient records, and in developing new facts; and the entire work is presented to us in a very elegant shape. We hope that the series may meet the success which its substantial merits richly deserve.

16.—*The Illustrated Book of Christian Ballads, and other Poems.* Edited by the Rev. RUFUS W. GRISWOLD. Philadelphia: Lindsay & Blackstone.

One of the most prominent features of the literary enterprise of our own country, at the present time, is the improved style in which the volumes that daily issue from the press now appear. That improvement is doubtless owing alike to the advanced state of this department of the arts with us, and to the requirements of the public, which call for more elegant books than formerly. Here is a collection of devotional poetry, not more remarkable for the pure and elevated religious spirit which it is adapted to inspire, than for the splendor of its embellishments, both upon its cover and its pages. The spirit of genuine piety which many of its pieces breathe, is worthy of the present style of its publication.

17.—*Elements of Rhetoric and Literary Criticism, with Copious Practical Examples. For the use of Common Schools and Academies, &c., &c.* Compiled and arranged by J. R. BOYD, A. M., Principal of Black River L. and R. Institute. New York: Harper & Brothers.

The numerous testimonials appended, relating to the merits of this work, from gentlemen long engaged in the business of instruction, or occupied in superintending the management of public schools, while it renders any opinion we might express valueless, so far as the public are concerned, convinces us that the treatise may be relied upon as worthy of confidence. Besides the elementary principles laid down, we are presented with a brief but succinct history of the English language, and of British and American literature from the earliest to the present times, on the basis of the recent works of Alexander Reed and Robert Connel.

18.—*The Philosophy of Rhetoric.* By GEORGE CAMPBELL, D. D., F. R. S., Edinburgh, Principal of the Marischal College, Aberdeen. A New Edition, with the author's last Additions and Corrections. 12mo., pp. 435. New York: Harper & Brothers.

From the examination we have been able to give this work, we should deem it a profound philosophical treatise upon rhetoric. It is a new edition, and it appears to have been prepared as early as 1757. Some of the doctrines advanced by former rhetoricians are met and refuted, and some very satisfactory views are put forth upon the principles of the science. It abounds with the results of learning and deep thought, and could be studied with great advantage by all those who desire to become acquainted with the subject of which it treats.

19.—*The Moss-Rose, for a Friend.* Edited by Rev. C. W. EVEREST. Hartford: Bunn & Parsons.

20.—*The Hare-Bell, a Token of Friendship.* Edited by Rev. C. W. EVEREST.

Two elegant little books, uniform in size and appearance, designed as gift-books for the approaching Christmas and New Year, but possessing a standard perennial value, suited to all times and seasons. They consist of original pieces, and choicest gems, in prose and verse, (chiefly the latter, however,) from our purest and most accomplished writers. Mr. Everest, the editor, and the author of several of the best articles, we know and esteem, *for his pure life and manners*; and those who purchase will admit and admire the *elegance and correctness of his taste*, as evinced in these delightful volumes.

21.—*Oracles from the Poets; a Fanciful Diversion for the Drawing-Room.* By CAROLINE GILMAN. New York: Wiley & Putnam.

This very pretty and pleasant volume is designed to be used as a fortune-teller, or a round game for forfeits, or examined as a treasure-house for the thoughts of poets on particular subjects, from Chaucer down to the minor poets of our own time and country. Questions are propounded; as, "What is the character of him who loves you?" "What is your destiny?" and a hundred others, and answers given from the poets, which are numbered. The literature of the volume is of the highest order, and the most exquisite descriptions and sentiments are contained in the answers. It is, altogether, an elegant book, suitable for a Christmas or New-Year's present to one's "lady-love."

22.—*The American Poulterer's Companion; a Practical Treatise on the Breeding, Rearing, Fattening, and General Management of the Various Species of Domestic Poultry, with Illustrations and Portraits of Fowls, taken from Life.* By C. N. BEMENT. New York: Saxton & Miles.

Mr. Bement, from the interest he has taken in the subject of the present volume, and his practical experience as a poulterer, possessed advantages for the preparation of such a work rarely enjoyed by persons capable of imparting their knowledge or experience in such matters. We have accordingly, in the volume before us, a thorough and systematic treatise, lucid and clear, embracing all the facts and circumstances connected with the production of the "feathered tenants of the farm-yard;" and showing, moreover, how poultry, under proper management, may be made as commercially profitable, according to the capital invested, as any other branch of agricultural industry.

23.—*A Treatise on the Forces which Produce the Organization of Plants. With an Appendix, containing several Memoirs on Capillary Attraction, Electricity, and the Chemical Action of Light.* By JOHN WILLIAM DRAPER, M. D., Professor of Chemistry in the University of New York. 4to., pp. 216. New York: Harper & Brothers.

The present volume is a philosophical treatise, exhibiting the causes which produce the organization of plants, not only in their connection with the light and the air, but in the development of their various parts, as produced by chemical forces. The science of vegetable and animal physiology has recently been enriched by valuable and brilliant contributions from Germany, France, and England; and it is the avowed object of the author to add this to the rich fund of knowledge which has been, from those sources, thrown upon the subject abroad. There are, moreover, some new facts, which he has himself discovered, presented in its pages. "The great idea," says the writer, "which it is designed to illustrate, is that which connects the production and phenomena of organized beings with the imponderable principles." It is furnished with plates, one of which is highly colored, and is an important acquisition to this interesting department of science.

24.—*A Plain System of Elocution; or, Logical and Musical Readings and Declamation, with Exercises in Prose and Verse distinctly marked, for the Guidance of the Ear and the Voice of the Pupil.* By G. VANDENHOFF, Professor of Rhetoric in the city of New York. New York: C. Shepard.

We have many books on the subject treated of in this volume; and although, in the present, Mr. V. makes no pretension to profundity, and not much claim to originality, except in that it is *simple* and *intelligible*, and, as far as it goes, correct in theory, and *easy of practice*, which he considers (and we agree with him on that point) rather a novelty in works on elocution. The author, we may add, is an accomplished elocutionist himself; and it is but fair to suppose that he has imparted a correct idea of the art in which he has attained proficiency.

25.—*Mora Carmody; or, Woman's Influence. A Tale.* New York: Edward Dunigan.

A well written story, illustrating the influence of woman over the mind of the author; who, it seems, became a convert to the ancient, or Roman Catholic faith, through the medium of that influence. The writer seems to possess a loving and liberal spirit.

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